

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

VOLUME XI CONTENTS FOR MAY, 1947 NUMBER 2

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THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Published quarterly by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Volume XI

MAY, 1947

Number 2

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Reference to the minutes of the Forty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 4, 1936, as recorded on page 24 of Volume I, Number 1 shows the following official action authorizing this publication.

Upon recommendation of the Executive Committee the Association voted to adopt the report of the Committee on Publications appointed at the fortieth annual meeting.

The Committee on Publications of the Southern Association unanimously submits the following recommendations:

1. That a Southern Association Quarterly be issued.
2. That a board of five members be held responsible for securing an editor and supervising all matters pertaining to the publication and distribution of the Quarterly. This board is to be composed of the secretaries of the three commissions, the president, and the secretary-treasurer of the Association.
- 3, 4. (These sections recommended as to the character of the four issues and made appropriation for publication. See page cited above.)

In accordance with these resolutions a Board of Publication was set up, the editor elected, and the editorial committee constituted to consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association acting with the editor.

The Role of College Education in the Developing South*

BY IVEY F. LEWIS

Dean, University of Virginia

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools represents a region of vast but in some respects unrealized possibilities. The fourteen states often classed as Southern contain 28 per cent of the total land area of the United States, with about the same per cent of population. In natural resources the South is rich, rich in minerals, in forests, in gas and oil, in water power, in agriculture—but poor because of land erosion and human erosion.

As one travels through large areas of the Southern States, he cannot but be struck by the immense amount of land, once fertile, now given over to brook sedge, old field pine, or neglected and very discouraged crops. In Virginia I frequently drive the sixty odd miles from Charlottesville to Richmond and always am struck by the amount of land now abandoned and deserted. Some of it reminds me of South Carolina soil which is said to be so poor that the farmer always plants three grains of corn to the hill, one to pull, one to push, and one to grunt.

All this means simply that there is much marginal land and as a consequence many marginal people. Something can be done about this. So far as exhausted soils are concerned something is being done now and effectively by a man of courage and vision who as a boy saw the poverty and despair of people wrestling a bare living from worn out land. This boy became the man Hugh Bennett of North Carolina, head of the Federal Soil Conservation Service, who has done more for the developing South than many whose names loom large in history and who now take their bows on the public stage in Washington and the state capitols.

Here we have a clear example of what the South needs, leaders of energy, initiative, and intelligence. The relation of eroded soil to backward people has been noted since the foundation of the republic. Patrick Henry defined as the true patriot the man who filled the gullies in his worn fields, and Thomas Jefferson tried to do something about it with his program of con-

* An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

tour plowing. Since their day millions of us have seen the slow decay of Southern soil without doing much about it until the man appeared to lead the way.

The work of the late Charles H. Herty in Georgia on utilization of the unlimited supply of Southern pines points the same moral. What we need and will always need is leaders, pioneers of industry and agriculture. You will note that both Bennett and Herty were men with a good college education who went further into technical fields. Here is our problem, the problem of Southern education and especially of the Southern college, to find and then to develop the men who will open new opportunities for our Southern people.

What are we doing about this challenge? We are proud of our many colleges and universities, proud of their number, their size, and of the steady progress they have made since their struggle for existence in the late nineteenth century, so well and devastatingly characterized in *Studies of Higher Education* under the chairmanship of Edgar W. Knight and published in 1946. From that day to this is a far cry, and the time has long since passed since we were compelled to be on the defensive, so that we may now calmly look facts in the face.

The truth is that the colleges of the South are confronted with a tremendous problem which will call for inspired leadership for its successful solution. The difficulties are many and very real. The situation calls for a maximum of good will and coöperative effort at both college and high school levels.

As a preliminary, let me remind you that the Southern colleges from a numerical standpoint are doing their full duty. As compared with the figures for the United States, the percentage of the total population having four years of college training in the South is almost exactly the same. Those having two years of college are somewhat fewer in the South, though four Southern states exceed the national average. Without troubling you with statistical details, it may be said that Southern youth flock to the colleges as they do in other regions and in about the same numbers.

There is some evidence, however, that they do not find there the same stimulation, the same arousal of ambition, the same desire to go further that they do elsewhere. In the number who have five years or more of training at higher levels, the United States leads the South by the significant margin of fifty per cent. Out of a thousand college graduates in the United States, twelve go further—in the South only eight.

States	Years of College Completed in Per Cent				
	1	2	3	4	5
Alabama	7.0	6.2	4.2	2.9	0.6
Arkansas	6.3	5.8	2.9	2.2	0.5
Florida	11.0	9.0	6.0	4.9	1.0
Georgia	8.1	6.4	4.1	3.3	0.6
Kentucky	7.1	5.8	3.8	2.9	0.7
Louisiana	7.8	6.5	4.4	3.5	0.9
Mississippi	7.4	5.9	3.8	3.0	0.5
N. Carolina	9.5	7.3	4.9	4.1	0.7
Oklahoma	11.4	9.1	6.2	4.7	1.3
S. Carolina	9.4	7.7	5.5	4.7	0.7
Tennessee	7.9	6.2	3.9	3.1	0.7
Texas	11.3	8.8	5.8	4.4	1.0
Virginia	11.1	8.4	5.4	4.4	1.1
W. Virginia	8.4	6.7	4.3	3.4	0.9
Average South	8.6	7.0	4.6	4.5	0.8
Average U. S.	10.0	8.1	5.6	4.6	1.2

We have readily available information about these eight out of a thousand young Southerners who go on in the natural sciences. * Such information is not so readily available from other fields, but there is no reason to believe that it would differ materially. In general, these are the picked men from whom we can best hope for the precious quality of leadership.

Out of every 100 of these scientists born in the South, 84 received their graduate training elsewhere, and 60 of these never returned to work in the South. Even more significant is the story of the "starred" men of science, who by vote of their fellows are considered to be scientists of distinction. Of these starred Southern men, nearly 81 per cent live elsewhere, and what talent and training they possess is lost to Southern education. These facts indicate a grievous impoverishment of the intellectual resources of the Southern area, and are an example of the human erosion to which I have referred. We are exporting talent that we ought to retain at home. It is true that some scientists of recognized distinction move into the South from other regions, but not enough to make up for the loss of native talent. While we lose 81 of these men we gain only 33 from other parts of the country.

To follow our scientists further, on the assumption that as a group they are comparable to those in other fields, it may be of interest to present some data as to Southern representation in national organizations, remembering that the South's population is 28 per cent of that of the nation.

* *American Men of Science*, 1927. Cited by Wilson Gee, *Research Barriers in the South*, 1932.

In the American Society of Naturalists, which has high standards of admission, there are 507 members, of which 22 or 4.3 per cent work in the South. Of 1,485 starred scientists * 49 are from the South, or 3 per cent. In 1933 the Southern membership of the National Academy of Sciences constituted only 0.4 per cent of the total. Recent elections, however, have raised this figure somewhat.

Sufficient data have been given to show that the South is not contributing its share to scientific progress in the nation. Since these figures were compiled, there has been some improvement in the South's standing, but we still lag woefully behind other sections. This reminds me of the Southern poet who lamented our backwardness in the following classic lines:

Alas for the South!
Her books have grown fewer;
She never was much given
To literature.

Several causes have been cited to account for the South's relatively inferior position in the higher forms of human endeavor. The long hot summers have been blamed, but we might recall that Greece was gilded by eternal summer in the great era of her history, the golden days of Pericles. The long slow climb toward economic independence, hampered as it has been by discriminatory national policy for two generations after the destruction of our capital assets, is a more likely and more oft-cited cause. Perhaps as is sometimes stated, the mutual impact of whites and Negroes has been an enervating influence. The prevalence in some sections of hookworm and malaria has also been blamed for Southern lethargy. Nobody, however, seems to have been bold enough to suggest congenital inferiority. The magnificent performances of Southerners when aroused, as they always are by war, show that there is some ground for the politicians' rotund periods about the quality of our Anglo-Saxon stock.

These are interesting subjects of speculation. It seems to me, however, that the important thing for us to think about is the remedy for our educational lag. Why is it that the normal number of young people enter Southern colleges, but an abnormally small number leave them for service at the highest level? The South stands at the threshold of a return to its earlier greatness. Now is the time to move forward. The colleges must bear their share of the responsibility for leadership. Perhaps an answer to the question why colleges in the South send comparatively few graduates to

* *American Men of Science*, Sixth ed., 1932.

more advanced training will give some indication of what we can do to improve Southern leadership.

Relative poverty is the basic cause of the relative failure of our colleges to arouse to the fullest the productive genius of our people. It is this that has erected those research barriers which are also barriers to good college teaching as well as to research. They probably remain much as they were when they were the subject of the study by Wilson Gee nearly fifteen years ago.

The first of these inhibiting factors is the steady drain of superior talent to the North. It has been shown that 81 per cent of scientific leaders leave the South and that in general more than half of all those who go to graduate schools outside the South settle in other parts of the country. It is an ironical situation in which Southern colleges export scholars and import athletes. It reminds one of the statement of the late President Kilgo made many years ago and quoted in the Knight report:

Ignorance in any part of America at this time is voluntary. It is, therefore, no malicious criticism to say that the South has all the education it wants. The traditional apology of poverty caused by the war cannot be sincerely urged any longer as an adequate excuse. The growth of wealth in the South has been marvelous, while the growth of education has been slow and tedious.

A second important barrier is low salaries and heavy teaching loads in Southern colleges. At the time Dr. Gee studied this matter, salaries in the South were one-third less than those paid elsewhere and teaching load was 30 per cent greater. It is impossible for a teacher who is too heavily burdened with class work to kindle a flame in his more talented students. He feels that he has done well to survive a session where the hours are overlong, and he goes unwillingly to the summer tasks made necessary by a low standard of pay. It seems to me, if I may make so bold, that the authors of your "Standard Five," suggesting sixteen credit hours as a standard teaching load, could not have had the benefit of that gem of a sentence from the Knight report: "Nothing is so enthusiastic as enthusiasm itself; and the talent for good teaching consists largely, not of erudition, but of ardor—a communicable ardor for wanting others to share with the teacher those treasures he himself has found to be interesting, informational, and en-

nobling." Such a communicable ardor cannot be on tap in a weary soul whose vital juices have been washed out by something like the following:

Class room hours.	3 daily
Study and preparation.	6
Communicating ardor to students in interviews.	2
Grading papers.	2
Performance of miscellaneous tasks for which professors are known to be vulnerable.	2
Committee meetings.	1
Eating.	1.5
Family life.	0.75
Recreation.	0.5
Dressing, shaving, sleeping.	5
Travel.	0.5

This is what a labor leader recently called a brutal schedule. What college teacher worth his salt enjoys a forty hour week?

A third barrier to inspired college teaching is the quality of many of the students. This is a complicated subject which could hardly be stated intelligibly in a few words to a general audience, but fortunately most of you already know as much about it as I do, so that it will be necessary only to refer to it rather briefly. Education, especially public education, has gone democratic in the last two generations. It has been stated that in the period 1870 to 1940 the population of the United States has increased threefold, while enrollment in high schools has increased ninetyfold, from 80,000 to 7,000,000.

Our educational programs are based ultimately on the long outmoded philosophy of Herbert Spencer, who in turn reflected an earlier error. The classic phrase, "All men are created equal," must be rationalized before we can accept it in light of modern knowledge. We might reword the bald statement to read that all men are created equal in the sense that all have a right to equality of opportunity and equality before the law. Actually all men are created unequal in their hereditary equipment. Given identical training, the same food, the same home surroundings, the same environment, it remains a fact that people look different, act as differently as they look, and are different. Some can do one thing well, some another. There are many "hand-minded" and somewhat fewer "book-minded" people. Many can handle concrete situations who cannot understand abstractions such as are found in algebra or trigonometry.

This puts the high school in an awkward position. Compulsory education laws force the offering of such a curriculum that all can, if not profit by it,

at least endure it. This means that the level of achievement must be graded down to the lowest common denominator. Mass education must appeal to all, the willing as well as the unwilling, the bright as well as the dull, the rich and the poor, the ambitious and the poor in spirit, the quick and the slow. Only a small fraction of high school students now go to college; therefore, the old college preparatory program, centered in English, mathematics, and foreign language is unsuitable for the majority. It is inevitable that these stern disciplines give way to civics, "general mathematics," the handling of "life situations," the "integration of personality." The result is poor preparation for college and too often a level of college training that does not offer the stimulus of high endeavor to that precious fraction, our future leaders.

After much thought and many conversations with leaders of high school education, it is my opinion that it is a capital mistake to offer only one program of studies and a capital mistake to neglect the 17 per cent minority or less who ought to go to college. Realizing the difficulties and objections, nevertheless, I see no real solution to the problem of providing both for the many and for the few other than to set up at least two programs in every high school, the general curriculum and the college preparatory curriculum. To make this work, there must be set up a good guidance and advisory program, using carefully prepared placement tests and making decisions on the basis of such objective tests rather than on the wishes of the pupil. Only in this way is it possible to give a suitable education to the many, and an adequate training to the prospective leaders.

Whatever the correct answer may be, I feel sure that educational statesmanship can remove this barrier to more effective functioning of Southern colleges.

Examination of these three factors hindering the full contribution of the colleges to the developing South will show that two of them are basically economic, and to a certain extent this is also true of the third. It is time now for all of us to abandon the lowly ambitions which were proper when the South could be called the "Sahara of the Bozart" and try to make it plain to public and private supporters of our educational program that cheap education is in the long run the most expensive education.

Some recent figures will show that we are coming of age and need no longer fail in our duty. Per capita income in the Southern states is steadily climbing. In the Southeastern states it was in 1929 50.6 per cent of the national average, 56 per cent in 1940, and 66 per cent in 1945. This is exclusive of all income from military sources. The curve of Southern prosperity is rising. The way to keep it so is to provide educational facilities of the best at all levels, school, college, and graduate school. To do so we must by superhuman effort utterly cast out the notions that size is a

substitute for quality, that you can have both at the same time on a pinch-penny income, and that a good half-back contributes more to education than ten promising students.

The following objectives are presented for consideration by the Association

Objective one: to counteract the drain of talent from the Southern region by bringing conditions of pay and work-load into line with national standards.

Objective two: to improve the quality of college teaching in the South by providing greater opportunity at home for graduate training of the first quality.

Objective three: by coöperation between high schools, colleges, and state departments of education to provide better basic training for high school students of ambition and ability.

If we can move steadily and with determination toward these objectives, the Southern colleges can lead the way in accelerating the already visible trend toward better things in a South which most of us love, and all of us are eager to serve.

The Role of Teacher Education in the Developing South*

BY HENRY H. HILL

President, George Peabody College for Teachers

I. Introduction

When one is invited to speak on an assigned subject by his teacher of twenty-five years ago, there is nothing to do but accept. The carefully conditioned determination of a student to do and die for his teacher is not cast off in a mere quarter of a century. In the ancient days of 1921, I might add, both student and teacher were very, very young.

I would define teacher education broadly as embracing those subjects and experiences and attitudes which, taken together, tend to produce a successful beginning teacher and which through the years make likely his continued growth. Among those who master the science of teaching there will be some who will master the art. Today as always we need more artists in the classrooms of American schools and colleges.

Before suggesting some possible steps in the development of teacher education, I would like to discuss first the developing South.

II. The Developing South

In the introduction to the report of economic conditions in the South, prepared for President Roosevelt by the National Emergency Council in 1938, the President referred to the South as the nation's number one economic problem. The President's statement and this report focused critical attention on our problems. I want to quote from it.

"The paradox of the South is that, while it is blessed by nature with immense wealth, its people as a whole are the poorest in the country." More than half of the South's farm families are tenants. With the depletion of the soil, the one-crop system, and other ills familiar to all of us, hundreds of thousands of people have been forced to leave the South in order to achieve any reasonable economic opportunity. Many of our fine educational systems in both counties and cities are the equal of some of the better systems of the North and West, yet, as a whole we do not measure up in any respect financially or scholastically to national standards. Social welfare workers in a city like Indianapolis, for example, are apt to think very poorly of Southerners, because the ones they see are, for the most part, a source of trouble to everyone. Fortunately a brighter and more optimistic picture

* An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

is obtained if, in New York City or any big metropolitan center, we check the list of Southerners who have become distinguished in business and the professions.

While we are looking at the black side of the picture, it may be observed that more people in the Southern area die without medical aid than in any other area of the United States. In a section in which it is possible to live with far less effort than in the colder climates of the North we do not have enviable statistics of morbidity or mortality.

The South has an abundance of laborers, but most of them compare poorly in the amount of income earned and in the quality of work performed to those of other parts of the Nation. I hope we shall quit trying to attract industry by holding out as an inducement a cheap labor supply. The older I get the more I am convinced that we fool nobody except ourselves when we employ cheap labor. We pay the ultimate price in all the squalor, dependency, and inefficiency inevitable in such low economic levels.

Quoting again from the report: "While it is growing more cotton and tobacco than it can use or sell profitably, the South is failing to raise the things it needs. Southern farmers grow at home less than one-fifth of the things they use; four-fifths of all they wear is purchased. The South's people want and need houses, radios, butter, beef, vegetables, milk, eggs, dresses, shirts, shoes. They want and could use many thousands of things, little and big, that men and machines make to bring health and good living to people. The average Southerner with a total income of \$315 could spend without help twice that amount for the things he needs badly." For example, a study of Southern farm-operating white families during the 1930's showed that those whose incomes averaged \$390 annually only spent \$49 for the food they bought, \$31 on clothing, \$12 on medical care, \$1 on recreation, \$1 on reading, and \$2 on education. More recently these statistics have changed and I think on the whole for the better.

From a bulletin entitled "Talk It Over" published by the National Institute of Social Relations, comes a 1946 summary of Southern conditions. The South has more than a third of the nation's good farmland, ample rainfall throughout the region, the greatest diversity of soil in the nation, the greatest production of cotton and tobacco, forty per cent of the nation's forests, very good resources in minerals, great resources in water power, good transportation and community facilities, and the greatest production of children in the nation.

But the South has more than sixty per cent of the nation's eroded land; the lowest incomes in the nation, caused both by lower pay and lower skill of workers; and, in addition, has poor houses and relatively poor schools and health facilities. The South tries to educate one-third of the nation's children on a sixth of the nation's school revenue. A quotation from Dr. Odum is pertinent here: "From fifty per cent to ninety per cent of Southern

children in large areas receive inadequate diet for any normal health standards; perhaps more than fifty per cent of all school children examined show carious teeth; standard tests show inadequacy of minerals and proteins. There is large waste in tuberculosis and other diseases as a result of poor diet. All of this in a land peculiarly fitted for a superabundance of all food of all sorts."

William Hayne's *Southern Horizons*, published during the current year, gives a somewhat more optimistic picture of the South in describing a few of the bright spots in the new Southern developments in silk, ramie, and chemurgic projects.

Interesting and important, I think, is the account of the Southern Research Institute which was launched in Birmingham, October 4, 1944, by an inspiring address made by Dr. Edward R. Weidlein, Director of the Mellon Institute of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. For the better part of three years in Pittsburgh I lunched frequently with the heads of research groups from the Mellon Institute at a round table composed of Mellon Institute leaders and educational administrators. The Mellon Institute provides a place where commercial research may be done more expeditiously and less expensively and without so much of the trial-and-error procedure as accompanies the beginning efforts of single corporations. I think we educators ought to know about the Southern Research Institute and to encourage it in every way. It will develop better products and values throughout the Southland and, in the long run, it will provide better support for our schools through strengthening the resources of the South. There are other Southern research centers which are described by Mr. Haynes.

I quote with approval part of his concluding paragraph: "To the South especially, the future of that pioneering research which creates new industries is today crucial. Broader than this immediate sectional consideration, research is the key to the continued economic progress of the whole country. This scientific tool is the best means man has ever found for providing permanent, purposeful employment in the production of usable goods and for building up a surplus out of which to yield a more abundant life. Research is thus the only valid guarantee of the future, the underwriter that will make good the promises of the new spirit which inspires Southerners, the broad highway to the brighter horizons for all Americans."

I read with interest Rupert B. Vance's *All These People*, published in 1945 by the University of North Carolina Press. In his chapter on the education of the people, he develops the thesis that for a long time to come a very considerable proportion of the South's population will migrate to all parts of the nation and to all sections of our economy; therefore, it is highly important to the nation, as well as to the section, to educate the large child population of the South for such useful tasks as the future will demand. Mr. Vance has drawn from the census of 1940 figures indicating that the best

educated people live in the Far West, where exactly half the adults above the age of 25 have spent over 9.7 years in school, as compared with a median of 7.4 school years in the Southeast. In the South, Floridians had the highest educational attainment, although Mississippi had carried farthest the education of whites, and Kentucky had done most for the Negroes.

Vance shows that a potential high school population of 556,000 in 1930 yielded only 120,000 enrollment in the last year of our high school. On the encouraging side, we note that 6.7 million pupils out of a possible 7.7 million were actually in school in the South in 1938, a ratio of 87.5 per cent as compared with 93.1 per cent for the nation. During the past few decades the South has cut down the gap between the leading states and our own.

Recent reports indicate that there will be some migration from other parts of the country to the Southland, but that a greater proportion of migrants will go into other sections of the country away from the South. In times of prosperity there is a considerable migration of Southerners to Northern industrial regions and to similar regions in the Far West. In times of depression there is a gradual but quite pronounced trek back toward the farms and homes in the South from which the workers came. That our section is a better place to be in times of depression than in times of prosperity is a somewhat doubtful compliment.

Harriet L. Herring's volume of 1940, entitled, *Southern Industry and Regional Development*, is a relatively compact and readable summary which I feel should be read by all educators who have a real interest in seeing education modify the lives of the people of our region.

In his volume, *Planning for the South*, published by John B. Van Sickle of Vanderbilt University in 1943, the author makes a very good case for the equity of greater Federal expenditures in the South than in other areas. Time does not permit a recapitulation of the facts presented, but they seem to the speaker as entirely acceptable.

Presumably most of you are familiar with Virginus Dabney's entertaining volume, entitled *Below the Potomac*, published in 1942. He indicates some of the disadvantages which Southern higher institutions of learning have still to overcome. He seems to think that there is an overemphasis upon athletics, particularly football. He points out that a Southern university may have a great bowl record and yet offer almost no really advanced research or graduate work of the highest caliber. It might be an appealing idea to syphon off at least half of all the football bowl funds into the research laboratories of Southern universities. Then we might have somewhat the same delightful condition which exists in Kentucky. There a fine racetrack, which does considerable experimental research to find out which thoroughbred can run fastest at a given moment, pays part of the salaries of professors at the University of Kentucky. Since I have a hunch that foot-

ball is here to stay for at least a few more years, I would like to see us approach its problems with more imagination and less flagellation.

Mr. Dabney brings out in his book the familiar story of Georgia's Mr. Talmadge and his attack on "foreign" educators. I deplore somewhat our professional sensitivity to outsiders brought into the South. A judicious mixture of Yankees and Southerners may be good for both. Many of the most eminent citizens of the United States have been foreigners who have settled in the North. We boast perhaps too much of our Anglo-Saxon heritage when we fail to produce a similar number of eminent citizens among our native sons and daughters.

III. Teacher Education

The role of teacher education in the developing South will depend almost entirely on the kind of education we are to have. As one who spent a good many years studying Greek, Latin, mathematics, Bible, French, German, and Spanish—without becoming a scholar, I may add—I regard scholarship highly; and yet, scholarship may be one of the most barren things to be found, so far as the modification of the lives of a large number of people is concerned. Our great colleges and graduate schools must continue to develop leaders for the professions and for the business and industrial world with the broadest possible scholarship consistent with the other purposes of their education and life.

The heart of the teacher education program, however, so far as I am concerned, is whether or not the teacher may learn somewhere and somehow the relationship between the school and the community which it serves. We need the community-centered school. The Sloan Foundation in the mountains of eastern Kentucky found that if yellow corn were substituted for white corn, one serious deficiency in the diet of the people would be eliminated and that considerable physical advancement would be made.

As a person who has visited schools in a good many states both in the North and in the South, I have thought for a long time that our Northern states do much better in the fields of physical education, diet, and health teaching. A year ago I decided to cast my lot with my native Southland. Shortly thereafter I lectured at the University of Wisconsin for a week. I was struck again, as I had been before, with the robust physical vigor, strength, and hardihood of citizens of that state. On one occasion in a little restaurant in the station at Madison I overheard a group of G. I.'s who had just come from a camp in southern Mississippi discussing why the children in southern Mississippi looked so much less vigorous and healthy than those around Madison. I don't think that their conclusion was entirely erroneous. They decided that the Wisconsin children got more milk to drink.

I have been trying to think over why both children and grown-ups in the northerly states, especially in the colder climates, should be more vigorous

and healthy than those in the warmer states. Mind you, I have not made any scientific investigation of this matter, and my belief in this hypothesis is occasionally jarred. For example, a few days ago when the opening line-up of the fairly good Army football team contained the names of eight Southerners, I thought maybe my major premise was wrong. But I think the compiled figures on Selective Service in World War II will bear me out. Since there is nothing in biology which tells us that one particular race inherently is hardier than another, is it altogether due to climate or diet or what? Certainly I think the fact that in a northern climate one must work hard and struggle in order to keep from freezing must have been one factor. Conversely, one price for a balmy climate is the fact that it is very difficult to freeze to death, and therefore, very little need be done about it. Actually it seems to me that in the South we tend in the mass to live at a lower rate of energy and productivity. I think climate is only one factor in this.

At any rate, improvement of the economic conditions of the community, including dietary habits and securing a greater abundance of nutritious food, certainly will produce for the next generation healthier, and on the whole, happier boys and girls. At George Peabody College for Teachers, as at other institutions, we are trying to see to it that teachers get some knowledge of geography, of resource use education, and of the potential development of the communities, even of those which seem to be rather wretched and poverty-stricken at the present. Of course it is going to be far more difficult to impart the will to live in these communities and to work with these people than it is to impart the knowledge, but here and there we find those who are challenged by the very difficulty of this task.

If it were not going astray, I would be tempted to dwell on the scarcity of teachers and the difficulty of getting anybody to teach school anywhere at the present time. I am quite confident that we shall rectify the salary conditions which in part have produced the present scarcity of teachers and that in the long run we shall be wise enough to make intelligent steps forward. Nature abhors a vacuum. I hope that this physical law is going to apply in the human world, because we certainly do have a vacuum in hundreds of schools in the Southland and throughout the country.

I do not want to pass over this situation without saying categorically that it is the compelling duty of every citizen who regards the best interests of his country to see to it that teachers are not denied their share of the economic gains of this land through the ancient constitutions and legislative enactments and the peculiarities of the tax structure. On the whole, I think teachers have been about the most patient class in all society. If we as adult citizens deny them their just rights, are they to blame or would we be to blame, if sooner or later teachers either quit *en masse* or joined unions and used the ordinary pressure methods of which we are so painfully aware at the present?

In passing I must express my matured opinion that only through Federal aid without undue Federal control will there be a chance of having a minimum floor of educational opportunity throughout these United States. Education tends to produce wealth, but it takes a certain amount of wealth to provide educational opportunity. With the two-generation handicap inflicted upon the South by the results of the Civil War and events since then, it is idle to suppose that the amount of money is going to be available soon within the Southern States to give anything approaching the same educational opportunities now obtained in more fortunate states outside of the South.

I am not unduly disturbed by the bogey of Federal control. We have had Federal aid now since 1867, and I have heard no very serious complaint about this by most of those who now oppose increased Federal aid for all the schools. I do not want Federal control, but I do not believe that I am either naive or illogical in thinking that a Federal government that has spent hundreds of millions for the erection of school buildings can pay into the state treasuries funds to be spent under direction of the several states and according to their laws and constitutions.

It may be that we shall have to have this aid brought in through the backdoor. For example, according to all published speeches, letters, and editorials, everybody approves the bountiful provision of the Federal government for the veterans of the armed forces; and, if any criticism is made, it is that the Federal government has not been generous enough. This appropriation, of course, is merely backdoor Federal aid for every private or public college throughout the United States where any member of the armed forces is enrolled. And yet it would have been impossible to secure the appropriation of all those billions by direct Federal appropriations to the separate colleges. We have to go through this circumlocution of appropriating money to an individual and then having him appropriate it to the colleges. Perhaps we can work out something just as simple, sound, and acceptable for the public schools, where the disparity in opportunities is apparently greater, section by section, than in the institutions of higher learning.

Encouraging to me is the resolute and mature judgment in favor of Federal aid of such Northern and Eastern educational leaders as President Conant of Harvard, President Day of Cornell University, and many others. It is odd that enlightened leaders of the North can arrive at such a conclusion with due thought and deliberation and yet some of our Southern leaders are opposed, still apparently blocked emotionally from reaching such a conclusion by feelings of one kind or another that ought not to be engendered into this situation.

I agree with Mr. Conant's advocacy of a system of Federal scholarships which would provide the opportunity for the bright boys and girls of our

financially poorer classes to attend college and become members of the learned professions, including law and medicine and engineering and education. The bright boy today who would enter medicine had better be wise enough to choose middle class or rich parents if he is to have a good chance of going through the extensive and expensive period of training. It is not good for a democracy to have all of the members of the professions come from the upper financial stratum of society.

IV. Practical Suggestions.

With proper humility, I would like to offer three or four practical suggestions in this matter of teacher education. In the first place, I think all over the land we need to seize upon the early years of this postwar period as a time to replan our program of teacher education. Almost every single plan we have throughout the country has been in effect for a good many years, and it never was considered the best that could be done. How to integrate subject-matter and methodology is still a problem. Where and how to supply the clinical experience is not finally settled. It isn't solved by dumping all methodology into outer darkness on the ground that teachers are born and not made or on the specious assurance that a person who is a scholar is automatically a good teacher. From my own experience and observation, I would hazard the guess that some of the worst possible teaching has been visited on freshmen and sophomores by instructors proudly ignorant of methodology and of youth. To that instructor or professor who complains about the quality of students in his classes and who brags considerably about the high standards he is upholding, I would pass on what one discerning friend of students said in reply to such a braggart, "And I hope, my dear sir, that your teaching is up to the same high standard."

To those who take the suggestion of revision of teacher education seriously, I would suggest certain sources of help. In some ways the most helpful for college faculties may be the publication under the direction of Russell M. Cooper and collaborators in 1945 entitled, *Better Colleges Better Teachers*, a publication sponsored by the North Central Association. A group at Ohio State has published within recent years *Adventures in the Reconstruction of Education*, and this also merits attention. Then there are the publications distributed by the Teacher Education Commission. These deal directly with almost every problem concerned in better teacher education. The well-known Harvard report and *Education for Youth* are two stimulating volumes.

In the second place, I believe with our somewhat limited resources in the South we might well try to develop centers of specialization in teacher education throughout the South and Southwest. I do not know whether any such plan would be agreed to voluntarily by those who plan graduate programs, but I would like to see it tried.

Recently at Peabody we have been trying to determine what is the unique function of our institution or, more modestly stated, what are the distinctive values which can be obtained or should be obtained at Peabody. What is our distinctive purpose at Peabody? What is yours at your institution? That, I think, ought to be answered. Then we could get together and map out informally areas of study of paramount interest for each major higher institution of learning.

At Peabody we are interested in resource use education and in the general role of education in the conservation and development of all natural and human resources. This, of course, is shared by other institutions, but we propose at Peabody to develop it to a much larger degree than we have in the past.

In this connection I think you would find a recent publication by Dr. J. R. Whitaker, Professor of Geography at Peabody, worth your attention. It is good background reading for general administrators because it is short. I refer to *The Life and Death of the Land*, published during the current year by Peabody College, a volume of one hundred pages.

We think also that there ought to be some institution where a person may learn, not only English, but something about teaching English and where he may become a specialist in the general field of the teaching of English. We are not convinced that the man who delves deepest into Anglo-Saxon, or Sanskrit, or what not, is the answer to this particular need. Therefore, we are trying to build a combination of the scholar and educator and school teacher who can provide both subject-matter and a sympathetic attitude toward the problems of teaching and toward children.

There is a need somewhere in the South for a place where deans of women and other personnel officers of institutions might go for special education or consultation. We should not indefinitely send all our native Southern educational leaders to get what they need in the North and West. Peabody might pioneer in this general field and could do so but for the chance that many other colleges and universities in the South might have the same idea.

The University of North Carolina has what might be called a head start in its treatment, study, and analysis of regionalism and its problems. While every other institution might do something along this line, why could we not agree that to the University of North Carolina this particular venture would be a field of paramount endeavor and importance and thus get the full benefit of one great regional center of this kind?

Important is the problem of the junior college, its growth and development and expansion throughout the South and Southwest. At Peabody we feel some obligation to become a center for the study and analysis of the problems of teaching in the junior college. Courses may certainly not be

amiss, still I have more in mind the discussion and interchange of ideas, the reading and study and analysis and thinking which, under the best conditions, can take place where interested and devoted leaders are brought together. We propose to build at Peabody a center for the study and analysis of problems of the junior college. It seems a natural for us. But we could go forward more rapidly and surely if we were the only college, or one of two or three colleges, building such a center.

At the Joint University Center in Nashville composed of Peabody, Scarritt, and Vanderbilt, we do not claim to be coöperating perfectly or to be achieving any very remarkable results through this coöperation, yet already there are distinct and clear-cut advantages. For example, Vanderbilt does not endeavor to teach education courses as such. We at Peabody are more and more dropping out some of the subject-matter fields, such as French, German, and physics, because these subjects can be gotten and gotten better at Vanderbilt. I think we need more of this, and not so much by some airtight legal plan as by informal coöperation. Coöperation at best is difficult, and it is time-consuming and uses up a lot of energy. Coöperation ought not to wear us out so that we have no energy to effect the plans we agree on after we have coöperated. Hence the plan ought to be simple and informal.

I would like to see the President of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools take the initiative in calling for some Southernwide meeting having to do with the development of certain centers of better than average standing in some of the fields which cannot be done so well in any one institution if every other institution is going to try to do the same thing. I might say that most of these ventures are expensive and difficult, and for this reason it ought not to be too hard to coöperate.

I deplore the fact that, in the past, institutions have established weak departments in this or that purely because some other institution had them and because they might lose a student or two. *We ought to lose students to other institutions.* In my judgment, a good institution does not hurt another good institution. The only institution hurt by a good institution is a poor one. Not only can we be so good, but I think we can be stronger through this process of coöperation.

In the third place, I would like to see the South assume a greater leadership in the problems of international education and world citizenship. Because of limited energy or funds or what not, we have not always led in this regard. We shall need during the next decade educational leaders to work in Japan and Germany and in other countries of Europe and Asia. The same, of course, is true in South America, as well as in other countries of North America. Whether we want to be or not, we are the strongest and most powerful nation in the world. We shall be in the future the educational center of the universe, unless we refuse to accept the responsibilities which go

with such a position. We plan at Peabody this summer a two-day conference on "Education in Other Lands" to make a start in this general direction.

There should be eventually a tremendous interchange of students brought about by the Fulbright Bill and other measures which I believe will be passed before too long. In my judgment this is wholesome and we in the South should early take whatever leadership we can in making this readily possible.

In the fourth place, I would like to see greater coöperation and understanding between business and political and economic leaders of the South, and educators. On our side of the fence, we frequently forget that a business man must make money in order to stay in business and that this profit system which some of us get exercised over is a very necessary part of our economy. Business leaders, on the other hand, concentrate too much, it seems to me, on making our educational institutions conservative. Anglo-Saxons are conservative by nature and more so by nurture. We don't need much encouragement to remain so.

The occasional pink, or communist, or new-dealer on our campuses might, in the interests of science, be studied instead of fired. It may or may not be a tribute to my profession that in 1932 the professors of the higher institutions of learning were still voting for Mr. Hoover.

Study, analysis, conference, and discussion are the means by which mature individuals settle most of their problems. We need the business man. He is frequently brighter than we are, hard-headed, and hard-hitting. On the other hand he needs to air his prejudices and at least rearrange them from generation to generation. Perhaps we can help him. Certainly teachers need the business man's sympathetic comprehension of their problems, almost as much as they need his money in taxes.

V. Summary

In the course of a month in Germany, as a member of the United States Educational Mission, I was referred by the military governor of Wuerttemberg-Baden to a book which used to be on his father's shelves many years ago entitled *A Fool's Errand by One of the Fools*, written in 1879. It is out of print, but I had the good fortune to find this book in the library of one of our Peabody faculty members. It gives what I judge is a pretty accurate picture of events in the South immediately after the War Between the States. It is a timely book to read. I want to quote one sentence: ". . . Neither the nature, habits of thought, nor prejudices of men, are changed by war or its results." That was written in 1879.

During the visit to Germany I kept thinking of the days of reconstruction and kept wondering whether or not the recommendations of a conqueror could ever be accepted by the conquered. The difference between doing

another person's will and willing to do something yourself is the difference between force and education.

Today as in 1865, we citizens of the South must educate ourselves and our own to the necessity of whatever changes should be made. In a very real sense ideas can never be imposed upon us. The role of teacher education in the developing South must be to diffuse widely those understandings and opportunities which have always enriched the life of the common man and have made him a finer human being.

Since we in the South produce far more than our share of the national population, it is up to us and to the nation to see that these young men and young women are permitted to be as valuable in peace as they are in times of war. It is still to me a rather tragic fact that youth for whom in 1937 we had no jobs and on whom we placed no economic value, became in the midst of war the pilots, and bombardiers, and navigators who gave an adult world the opportunity to display the selfishness so evident in our land today.

If and when individuals become as important in the economic and political world as they are in the spiritual world, the South will have its full recognition in building a better life for the future of the United States. We lead the nation in quantity of children produced. Let us look more to the quality of their health, their education, and their character. Surely this is the role of teacher education in a developing South.

Problems Facing Secondary Education in the South*

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The problems facing secondary education in the South that are set forth in this paper have been derived from the examination of many studies of secondary education in the South, from my own experience and study of secondary education, and from problems suggested recently by eight distinguished leaders of secondary education in the South. The problems presented herewith fall into two categories, namely:

1. Problems growing largely out of immediate difficulties that are very real in our present situation, and
2. Problems of a more fundamental nature of which the immediate problems are largely symptoms, and the ultimate solution of which depends upon the success of an all-out attack on the fundamental problems.

Some of the problems in category 1 growing out of immediate difficulties are

Shortage of qualified teachers,
Inadequate salaries,
Inadequacy of school building construction,
Predominance of small high schools offering limited and meagre courses of study,
Inadequate transportation,
Lack of teaching materials including visual aids, and the like,
The overloading of teachers,
Lack of adequate guidance programs and services.
The foregoing problems appear to be symptoms of deeply rooted traits of our Southern culture

1. The low level of productivity and low cultural level of Southern people as a whole as compared with other sections of the country.
2. Apparent lack of strong belief on the part of Southern people in education as a means of social improvement.

Analysis of these deep seated traits of Southern culture reveals two fundamental problems of major concern that face secondary education in the South. One is an economic and social problem; the other is primarily a problem for educators themselves. Fundamental problem Number One

* An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

is the responsibility of the secondary school for making its contribution to raising the total educational level of all Southern people. Fundamental problem Number Two is the responsibility of all educators in the South concerned with the secondary school to agree upon and to formulate a comprehensive program of secondary education that will achieve this end for all secondary schools, including all youth of secondary school age.

As to problem Number One, the responsibility of the secondary school for raising the cultural level of all Southern people, culture as here defined includes the ways the people in a given area do things, their ways of making a living, their level of development in economic and social living, their skills, their beliefs, their attitudes, their tools and symbols. Culture is learned behavior. It is distinctly human. No item of the culture is contained in the germ cells of any individual. The level of any culture is determined in large measure by the level and quality of education that it provides for its people. Given a comprehensive educational program that reaches all the people and satisfies their needs, the results will be a correspondingly high level of culture.

The resources of the culture are
Man himself (the people),
The raw materials of nature,
Science and technology,
Capital wealth,
Institutional wealth.

These five parts make up the whole pattern of cultural resources. Each resource depends on the others for development. For example, a comprehensive program of secondary education that meets the needs of all youth of secondary school age makes it possible for the intelligence of the people in any given area to be better trained. A better trained mind enables people to use their abilities to greater advantage, and to do more with the raw materials of nature. The development of technological resources follows logically. More capital wealth is created which in turn leads to an increase in institutional wealth. Thus, the development of one resource makes it possible to improve the others, and the relationships of the five parts of the whole form an endless cycle.

The South has an abundance of poorly trained or untrained people, and undeveloped soils, forests, minerals, and water-power that could be highly developed. The Southern secondary schools have not provided sufficient quantity or quality of scientific and technological education to enable the Southern people to acquire skills and to have the institutional wealth needed to cope successfully with their problems. The capital wealth of the South is low and will remain so until institutional resources are increased to the point

where they are capable of developing the abilities of the people. If Southern people were adequately educated in general education for character and citizenship, the practical arts, and the fine arts, scientific and technological resources would be increased and capital wealth would accumulate.

What are secondary schools in the South now doing to meet this challenge of making the Southern people more productive and of raising the total cultural level? The following data show that Southern secondary schools are falling far short of the challenge.

In Virginia, my own state, less than 50 per cent of the boys and girls of high school age are enrolled in school. In fact the figure is 41 per cent. One-half of the youth of high school age receive no instruction at the high school level. It appears from examination of reports of the Office of Education that, on the average, this condition prevails in the South as a whole.

In the South, then, less than half of the boys and girls are even reached by the secondary school.

What are we doing for the forty to fifty per cent that we have in secondary school? Very little in terms of the challenge of our first fundamental problem. We all know that for the most part the great majority of secondary schools in the South have offerings and programs of study geared to the needs of only about fifteen per cent of the fifty per cent of boys and girls of secondary school age that are now enrolled in school. This program of studies is largely of the college preparatory type which now serves only fourteen or fifteen per cent of those boys and girls entering high school. Thus, the secondary school in the South does not even touch as many as one-half of the boys and girls of secondary school age and only serves the needs of about fifteen per cent of those enrolled. The predominant secondary school curriculum now in operation in the South is the curriculum that was geared to the five or six per cent of the secondary school population that was enrolled two generations ago and does not provide for the needs of from eighty to eighty-five per cent of those now enrolled. Vocational education alone is not the answer to this problem as we can probably not hope that more than twenty per cent of the boys and girls entering high school will go to college and, likewise, the vocational education leaders themselves tell us that not over twenty per cent are needed in other highly skilled vocations. This leaves approximately sixty per cent of the boys and girls now enrolled, not including the more than fifty per cent that are not in school, for whose needs the present curriculum and program of studies do not provide.

Secondary educators must provide the type of realistic instruction which will enable our boys and girls to develop and convert a potentially rich natural endowment into an abundance of food, shelter, clothing, and public services. This type of instruction implies a realistic approach to the matter of studying natural resources and the provision of vocational education that is uniquely geared to needs peculiar to Southern conditions.

This leads us logically to a consideration of our second fundamental problem, which is the responsibility of all educators in the South concerned with the secondary schools to agree upon and formulate a comprehensive program of secondary education that will achieve this end for all secondary schools including all youth of secondary school age. Limitations of time on the length of this paper permit me to sketch this comprehensive program only in broad outline. These elements become even more potent when we consider in addition, the fifty per cent of boys and girls of secondary school age that are not enrolled in high school at all.

Several factors have contributed to the broadening of the conception of an adequate high school program, even for those boys and girls now enrolled in school. The influx into the high schools of thousands of youth representing all levels of the population with varying abilities and divergent interests has created a pressing problem. In 1906 the total high school enrollment in Virginia was approximately 13,000 pupils; in 1926 the enrollment was 59,000; and in 1946 it was 120,000. Approximately the same numbers apply to the South as a whole. During this forty-year period the enrollment has increased almost tenfold. While the enrollment in 1906 represented a small number of pupils selected on the basis of preparation for college, every level of the population is now represented in the high school. Since only about fifteen per cent of those boys and girls entering high school go to college, it is essential that in addition to the academic subjects many courses and experiences be provided for eighty-five per cent of the present enrollment. The insistent demands of students and patrons that the program of the school be more directly related to the problems of living has caused the addition of some new courses and the modification of old ones. With the rise of modern technology and the consequent development of many new occupational fields, the high school has found it necessary not only to add new educational opportunities but also to offer the students guidance in making vocational choices and in preparing to participate in the occupation selected. The growing belief that the school had a responsibility to the adult members of the community as they sought to further their education required an additional expansion of the high school program.

Through the operation of these and other factors our conception of a high school program will always be growing and developing. Today the adequate high school makes provision for the basic or general educational needs that are common to all boys and girls. To accomplish this, it provides for the further development of language and mathematical skills, the development of health habits, the understanding of the requirements of citizenship in a democracy, and some familiarity with the important elements of our culture, including practical and fine arts.

In addition to those needs which all students have, we must make provision for meeting the needs of pupils which vary from individual to in-

individual. To do this pupils must be given a wide variety of educational opportunities from which to select. The adequate high school should offer many specialized courses in the practical arts, and fine arts, as well as academic subjects.

As the offering of the high school becomes more extensive, pupils will need more help in order to choose wisely those courses that can make the greatest contribution to their development. Many opportunities for vocational study will be opened to them. New experiences in art, music, and a wider variety of academic subjects will also be available to them. An adequate high school program, therefore, must provide effective guidance services and exploratory courses for its pupils. The adequate high school program will be broad enough and will be organized in such a way as to be of real significance to the adults of the community. The adequate high school will have personnel and equipment to help adults in meeting their needs in the many problems of earning a living, in devising a program of community beautification, or in becoming acquainted with literature and philosophy.

In other words, it may be said that a secondary school program is adequate when it serves all of the pupils and the community. It is adequate if it provides the college-bound group with more complete preparation for their work, if it prepares those who go directly into an occupation more definitely for their work, if it offers a rich and stimulating experience which is vitally connected with the life of the community of both groups, and if its pupils are helped through guidance to find and pursue programs which are appropriate to their needs and in which they can succeed superlatively well.

Recent reports such as the Volume on "Education for All American Youth" published by the Policies Commission of the National Education Association, as well as other important studies, have made it clear that the South must continue to extend and enrich her program of secondary education. Among others, the following three trends in the development of the high school program have received impetus from these reports and from the interest manifested by legislators and the people at large: (1) the extension of the public school system from eleven to twelve years; (2) the development of a broader and richer high school offering; (3) the development of guidance services.

For the reasons set forth in the foregoing statement, because of recommendations made in surveys over a long period of years, and on account of agreement of laymen and educators, it is generally recognized that an adequate offering for the comprehensive high school should include:

1. A broad and varied program of general education,
2. Preparation to enter the technical college courses,
3. Preparation to enter the liberal arts college courses,

4. Preparation in commercial subjects and business methods that will adequately prepare students for this field of work,
5. General shop work that is largely exploratory in character and serves to acquaint the pupil with the elementary processes and manipulations of those trades and industries which are outstanding and important in daily experiences,
6. Vocational training in the trades parallel to real trade practices,
7. Vocational work in agriculture for advanced high school students and adults in evening and part-time classes,
8. Vocational work in homemaking, including part-time and evening classes with adults,
9. Adequate library and library space for both pupils and community,
10. Adequate health and medical clinics to serve both pupils and community,
11. Training and study in the fine arts
 - A. In music including vocal, instrumental, choral and band work,
 - B. In arts such as painting, drawing, modeling, ceramics, design, dramatics, and speech arts,
12. Evening and part-time classes for adults on a flexible plan,
13. One or two years of additional work beyond the present high school level open to any youth or adult qualified or interested,
14. Adequate physical education and athletics,
15. A variety of social and miscellaneous activities such as public speaking, public forums, lectures, literary societies, pupil and adult club work, student activities, socials, and the like,
16. An adequate and full program of guidance.

This offering can be classified under the following headings:

1. General education for citizenship and other common needs,
2. Specialized offering to meet individual needs in
 - (a) Academic subjects,
 - (b) Fine arts,
 - (c) Practical arts and vocational fields.

In administering this comprehensive offering major emphases should be given to diagnostic, remedial instruction and guidance through exploratory courses, diagnostic testing, the study of personal and social problems, and the strengthening and development of basic skills, aptitudes, appreciations, and understandings. By these means the aptitudes and abilities of pupils may be discovered and pupils may be guided into the fields of specialization in which they can succeed.

Optimum Size of High School

From an analysis of the comprehensive program of secondary education in a foregoing section, it is accepted that the breadth and variety of offering required for this comprehensive program and the staff needed to administer and teach it can be provided with maximum efficiency and economy both educationally and financially in a high school of approximately 600 to 1,200 pupils. When the offering is held constant, the evidence shows that in the proportion the enrollment of a high school falls below 1,200 operational costs increase and educational efficiency and services correspondingly decrease.

As enrollments decrease within the range from 1,200 to 600, the financial ability of most counties and cities is such that the gradually increasing per capita costs of education can be met. As enrollments fall below 600, however, the per capita costs of a comprehensive program increase in about the same proportion that the enrollments decrease, resulting in a limited offering at excessive per capita costs. In the small high school man power is wasted, and it becomes impracticable to provide a comprehensive offering both from an educational and economic point of view.

It seems clear that the larger the school up to 1,200 the better the opportunity to provide an adequate program. It is well known that in the small high school it is often impossible to provide even a satisfactory academic offering. Courses must be staggered on account of the small enrollment, thus requiring students to take subjects a year in advance of their maturity levels and vice versa. Frequently, adequate courses in the foreign languages and in the sciences cannot be offered. Courses in vocational fields and fine arts are limited and usually are not found in any appreciable degree in high schools with small enrollments. From the above statements the advantages of the 600 to 1,200-pupil high school are obvious; however, it is recognized that in some of the smaller counties and in other counties on account of topography and distribution of population, as well as present locations of substantial buildings, exceptions to the enrollment goals suggested above will be necessary and under these conditions smaller schools should be operated.

It is recognized that there may be exceptions to the range of enrollments herein set forth as sound goals. Many counties by topography and location of population are so situated that these goals can be carried out with a minimum disadvantage in transportation. It is an established fact that transportation is an important factor in school consolidation and that there are limits in time that pupils should spend on school buses.

All cities and some counties can attain these goals by establishing one high school; others by establishing two or more, and still have all of their high schools in the range of enrollment of 600 to 1,200. In other areas, however,

it may become necessary after the situation is studied with great care, to have high schools smaller than the optimum range of enrollment, namely, 600 to 1,200.

It should be noted, however, that the costs of comprehensive offerings in high schools of small enrollments, for example, from 200 to 300 or 400, are such that limited programs will result. It is recognized, however, that some of the smaller counties even after consolidations will have high schools in this enrollment range on account of the factors presented in the foregoing statements. While these schools will be in all probability unable to provide complete comprehensive offerings, they can provide greatly improved programs over the existing offerings in the smaller high schools.

The basic reason for merging small schools into larger units is to carry out sound educational policy and to provide for the highest educational efficiency. Therefore, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that it is fallacious to merge small schools into larger units and at the same time to fail to provide comprehensive programs of education for the pupils in the larger schools. There is no educational advantage in bringing large numbers of pupils together in one school with virtually the same offering and opportunities they have had in the small schools.

It should be noted here that any proposal to consolidate secondary schools in a county or city should be based upon most careful study over a considerable period of time by the school authorities. In planning for such a program of action to provide for an improved program of education the following procedures are suggested:

1. Make careful studies and surveys of the educational needs of the population of school age and the adult population.
2. Compare the needs discovered with the existing offerings of the schools to determine the extent to which the schools are at present satisfying these needs.
3. Compare the present offering of the schools with the comprehensive educational offering set forth in the foregoing sections of this paper and devise a program of secondary education.
4. Enlist the participation of lay people throughout the procedure and see that they understand and accept the program.
5. Have building surveys made to determine the necessary housing facilities, including locations and costs.
6. Plan with State and local authorities for a long term program of construction.

The points in the foregoing procedures are not necessarily steps to be taken one at a time. Several of the procedures may be carried on concurrently.

Summary

To summarize, the program of action that is needed in working toward the solution of the two fundamental problems herein discussed consists of the formulation of a comprehensive program of education consisting of

A. General education for citizenship and other common needs, and specialized offering to meet individual needs in academic subjects, fine arts, practical arts, and vocational fields;

B. A realistic resource use emphasis in the curriculum;

C. Vocational education that is really geared to the vocational needs of the people in the region; and

D. A few regional technical institutes and some vocational schools on the post-high school level.

Resources and means needed for the all-out attack on these problems are

1. Federal aid,
2. The merging of secondary schools into units large enough to make it possible to provide the comprehensive program, and
3. More equitable distribution of the tax load.

More Effective Instruction in Colleges and Universities in the South*

BY O. C. CARMICHAEL

President, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

More effective teaching is the greatest single need of our higher education. Emphasis on buildings and equipment, on laboratories and libraries, on curriculum and method, has sometimes resulted in its serious neglect. As Dr. Peterson says, in his book entitled *Great Teachers*, "the best possible curriculum or the best possible method, drawn from the latest findings of psychology, will suffer fatally in the hands of the dull, unimaginative teacher." The difficulty of recruiting good teaching personnel is particularly acute at the present time; the problem of teacher-training has long absorbed the attention of this Association; but the business of ensuring that the teachers remain effective throughout the forty years of their working lives has largely escaped our attention. It is my conviction that efforts to enrich the teacher's experience and thus enliven his performance have always been of central importance, and never so much so as now, when our colleges and universities have the most mature and serious-minded body of students in their history.

The function of the teacher is not merely to impart knowledge, to guide the student's reading, to clear up difficulties of understanding. It is rather, as someone has said, "to elicit enthusiasm by resonance from his own personality and to create the environment of a larger knowledge and a firmer purpose." You will recall Alexander Percy's tribute to Judge Griffin: "From him," he says, "you didn't learn a subject but life. Tolerance and justice, fearlessness and pride, reverence and pity, are learned in a course on long division if the teacher has those qualities as Judge Griffin had."

Perhaps the greatest weakness in American education is the tendency to teach "subjects" rather than "students." Our over-emphasis on subject matter has resulted in dull teaching and apathetic students. More and more the student must become the center of interest in the educational process. So-called "progressive education," with all its vagaries, made a real contribution by focusing attention on the individual and his needs. It was essentially a reaction against the "subject-centered" curriculum. Now when the student becomes the center of interest and the subject takes its rightful place as the medium through which the individual is taught, old familiar questions immediately arise. What are the goals of instruction? What effect upon the individual should good teaching have?

* An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

Certain answers to these questions come readily to mind. The individual must acquire knowledge; he should learn to think accurately and logically, and to express his thoughts clearly; he ought to develop some initiative and independence of thought and action. Tests have been devised to measure his knowledge and to some extent the accuracy and logic of his mental processes and his intellectual alertness. Little or no effort has been made to devise ways of determining the breadth and depth of his intellectual or social interests. By the same token, there are no recognized methods of stimulating those interests. In view of their basic importance in individual development and from the standpoint of society, it is odd that they have received so little attention. What the college graduate "wants to know" is much more important than "what he knows." Yet we award degrees on the basis of his knowledge, while ignoring completely the quality of his intellectual and social outlook.

My favorite definition of the educational objective is found in the writings of John Ruskin. He said: "The entire object of true education is to make men not merely do the right things but enjoy the right things, not merely learn but to love knowledge, not merely industrious but to love industry, not merely just but to hunger and thirst after justice." The dynamic, emotional quality of education, which is embodied in that definition, has been largely overlooked. At least it has not been the explicit object of systematic effort. And yet the truth and soundness of the definition are so obvious that no elaboration is needed to convince the layman or the educator.

As we refine our aims and gain more skill in evaluating our efforts, motivation will occupy a more and more important place in educational thinking. In the next decade or two the greatest strides in educational testing will be in this area. Already one of the eastern universities has set itself the task of exploring the possibilities and of making a start in this very difficult but extremely important field of measurement. The Army developed some techniques in the study of motivation among the troops which have not yet been exploited but which have interesting possibilities for colleges and universities. Long years of study and experimentation will be required to produce significant and usable results but the possible rewards are so great as to warrant the effort. If successful, the findings should help greatly toward making education more realistic and effective.

Every institution could with profit examine from time to time the impact of its program on the intellectual and social attitudes of the students. Simple tests could be devised which would throw light upon the extent to which the years of college had stimulated deep and abiding intellectual interests, or that sense of social responsibility so necessary to effective leadership. Faculty concern about these intangible goals of the college experience, even if the tests were not very effective, would be helpful if it did no more than direct the student's attention to their importance.

The personal qualities of the teacher are particularly important in awakening the latent powers of the student. The spirit of learning which is the ultimate goal of the educational process is "caught" rather than "taught." Only those who have acquired it can pass it on. Important as a knowledge of subject-matter, of methods, and of psychology is, it is no substitute for vital intellectual interests. Years of graduate work crowned with the doctor's degree are no guarantee of teaching effectiveness. A much more valid measure of the likelihood of success would be a determination of the quality of the social and intellectual outlook of the prospective teacher.

But much can be done to improve the teacher's effectiveness by a systematic effort on the part of administrations. Far too little attention has been paid to the improvement of the teacher's outlook and interests. Overcrowded schedules, large classes, and heavy committee assignments frequently result in extinguishing the spark of creative scholarship and of social purpose which should illumine the classroom. To do all in its power to keep that spark alive and growing with ever brighter flame is the responsibility of the administration. There are many ways of doing it.

Attendance on learned-society and professional-association meetings, even at the expense of class time, will pay large dividends. The provision made in the budget for faculty travel expense in most institutions is wholly inadequate. Relief from routine duties and the fresh viewpoint which professional contacts provide do much to enliven the teacher and the classroom performance. It has occurred to me frequently that if teachers, as well as administrators, could attend the meetings of this Association every year Southern education would profit greatly from it. Perhaps some institution will try sending each year as many professors as administrative officials, for a period of years, to see what the effect would be.

Expenditures for books, laboratory materials, and other equipment needed by faculty members in their own research would greatly encourage and strengthen faculty morale. Such appropriations might have to be made at the expense of other items in the budget; even so, it would be worth it, for, after all, the teacher is the central figure in the educational process. If he succeeds the program succeeds; if he fails it largely fails. To judge by the emphasis in some institutions, this fact has been overlooked.

Another means of raising the efficiency of instruction is to provide a special fund for the stimulation of faculty research and creative activity. A few hundred dollars in the smaller institution, or a few thousand in the larger, can work wonders by way of encouragement. Many investigations begun by faculty members have bogged down for want of a small sum for gathering material, for insuring publication, or for providing the secretarial help needed to complete the project. The fact that the institution considers faculty research and investigation worthy of support by including it in the budget, though the amount be small, is in itself a real source of encourage-

ment. College and university presidents are usually resourceful enough to find a few hundred or a few thousand dollars to carry out some plan that appeals to them. If this should prove to be such a plan, in the case of you who reside over the colleges and universities of this area, your faculties would rejoice and the cause of education would be advanced.

The principle of providing for research in the regular budget of the institution is sound. Books for the library, materials for the laboratories, salaries for clerical and teaching personnel, and many other items appear low in the list of requirements. The insistence upon Ph.D.'s for faculty positions indicates the belief that research is necessary for the preparation of the teacher. If it is a necessary part of his preparation it is based upon the assumption that it will continue to be a part of his life as a scholar and teacher. And yet, usually no provision is made for it. To be consistent the institution which insists upon the Ph.D. for its teachers should provide them with means for carrying on research activity as faculty members.

But there is a far more cogent reason than consistency for making such provision. The atmosphere of the classroom is a potent influence in the life of the students. If it is dull and uninteresting it tends to destroy the scholarly incentive; if it is exciting and dynamic, at least the better students will catch the spirit and a new impetus to learning will result. Now the teacher creates the atmosphere. If he hasn't the spark the class will lack it, too. Only as he is fundamentally concerned with the pursuit of truth can he impart that spirit to the class. Thus, a basic reason for supporting faculty research in the college is to improve the quality and effectiveness of instruction.

In the larger universities too much stress has often been placed upon faculty publication. Promotions are sometimes based on the number of published researches rather than on their quality or on the performance in the classroom. But these abuses do not invalidate the principle that without creative activity on the part of the faculty the educational program is likely to be weak and ineffective.

Another essential ingredient of the effective teacher is the sense of reality, of relevance, even of urgency of his task. Time was when the primary feature of education was mental discipline. The teacher's role was that of a taskmaster who by means of rewards and punishments required mastery of detail. Whether the facts to be learned were of value to the student made little difference. Indeed, the more abstract and unrelated to life the content was, the better the chance of real mental training. So far as educational theory goes the pendulum has swung to the opposite extreme, and in practice the highly-specialized vocational courses represent a revolt against the earlier conception. But in the actual teaching of liberal arts subjects the sense of reality and relevance is still frequently almost wholly absent. Every

teacher needs to remember that there is no "subject now, be it physics or politics, economics or history, philosophy or psychology that can be treated in isolation without considering its far-reaching implications." As someone has said: "Wild winds, remote winds blow through every classroom and no one can keep them out." Why not use them to freshen the meaning of timeworn conceptions, and thus imbue them with reality and relevance. That is the method of the imaginative and ingenious teacher. In a period of transition and change, in the beginning of the atomic age, in the early years of the United Nations, there is every opportunity and every reason to relate education to life as never before in our history. With one million mature and experienced veterans in our classrooms, it behooves all the forces of American higher education to redouble their efforts to make the program realistic and relevant. To fail to do so over the next five years will be not only to miss the greatest opportunity which the colleges and universities have ever had, but to imperil the future of higher education, by impairing the faith of a vast body of veterans in the value and importance of its contribution to American life.

Changes in American Education Essential to World Understanding and Peace^{*}

BY GEORGE F. ZOCK

President, American Council on Education

I cannot resist the temptation to begin this address by quoting that now well-known declaration from the Preamble to the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization as follows: "That since wars begin in the minds of men it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed."

This declaration of the way in which international peace and good-will may be attained is no more true today than it was a hundred years ago or indeed at any time in recorded history. Yet with the passage of the centuries greater and greater numbers of people have been involved in international struggles, the destruction of war has grown increasingly complete, and in recent years local hostilities or incidents easily burst into the flames of a world war involving the population of the whole earth both military and civilian.

Changing the minds and hearts of men toward peace in order that they might live and grow more nearly in the image of God may have been increasingly necessary in the years and centuries gone by but it has now become a matter of grim necessity. What has been theoretically desirable before has suddenly become one of our most practical problems. What has hitherto threatened some distant land confronts every American fireside now; what could always be postponed before will wait no longer. Implementing the means to peace is, therefore, a solemn responsibility on the part of every American citizen and particularly of every agency of society, the newspapers, the radio, and the schools which exercise such tremendous influence over the minds of men.

I propose, therefore, to spend a little time with you this afternoon in discussing the means by which I believe the educators can accomplish the heavy responsibility which has been thrust upon them. Obviously, I can select only a few illustrations out of a great many which merit consideration. If you wish to go into the subject exhaustively a book issued in 1937, I. L. Mandel, Editor, entitled *International Understanding through the Public School Curriculum* is still the best reference for suggestions at the level of elementary and secondary education. More recently on the college level we have the

^{*} An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

results of a recent conference held under the chairmanship of Dr. Ben M. Cherrington, which was published in October of this year in the *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*. Between these two sources any teacher or educational administrator who is really serious about this matter can get all the suggestions he needs.

I address myself first of all to the problem of teaching materials. Presumably they are printed in such huge quantities as to be readily available to teachers even of limited preparation and in remote areas as well as in centers of population. Among these are, of course, primarily the textbooks so extensively used for instructional purposes in all our schools. Indeed American teachers depend even more than they should on textbooks. What is on the printed page is inevitably regarded by immature minds as being not only the truth but the whole truth. Textbooks, therefore, condition the minds of both pupils and teachers in no uncertain manner both by what they say and by what they omit to say, particularly, I am convinced, in creating attitudes toward other people and nations.

To demonstrate their power over the minds of men, I am tempted to give you a brief glance at the textbooks used in the schools of Germany during the Nazi regime. As some of you may know, it was my good fortune and that of President Hill who spoke to you this morning, to spend a month during August and September of this year as members of an educational mission to observe and evaluate the educational program now being conducted in that zone of Germany now occupied by the United States Army. One of the most interesting parts of our experience was the opportunity to examine the textbooks used in German schools during the Hitler regime. They were filled with continuous, subtle, emotional appeals of hatred and distrust of other nations, the glorification of war, and the purity and destiny of Germany. Here are a few interesting examples, some of them contained in textbooks published even before Hitler.

An excerpt from a text-book in history follows:

It was important for the leading Ministers of the Entente to convince their people that war against malicious Germany was unavoidable. In Russia, Germans were not liked anyway; they were more educated, more industrious, more conscientious and more reliable than the Russians; therefore they were of necessity employed in the difficult positions. As early as 1840, 130 out of 600 high positions in Russia were occupied by Germans. Other Germans were well-to-do merchants, manufacturers, large landholders, doctors. Because they accomplished so much, and were occasionally disdainful of the Russians, they made themselves hated. The Pan-Slavists believed, in addition, that there was only one holy nation, namely Russia, and only one holy people, the Russians: the fight against godless Europe was (for them) a holy war . . .

In English instruction one of the favorite methods used in the German textbooks was to include selections from British or American authors or statesmen as, for example, the following quotation from Bernard Shaw's *The Man of Destiny*:

The English are a race apart. No Englishman is too low to have scruples; no Englishman is high enough to be free from their tyranny. But every Englishman is born with a certain miraculous power that makes him master of the world. When he wants a thing, he never tells himself that he wants it. He waits patiently until there comes into his mind, no one knows how, a burning conviction that it is his moral and religious duty to conquer those who have got the thing he wants. Then he becomes irresistible. Like the aristocrat, he does what pleases him and grabs what he covets; like the shopkeeper, he pursues his purpose with the industry and steadfastness that come from strong religious conviction and deep sense of moral responsibility.

He is never at a loss for an effective moral attitude. As the great champion of freedom and national independence, he conquers and annexes half the world, and calls it Colonization. When he wants a new market for his adulterated Manchester goods, he sends a missionary to teach the natives the Gospel of Peace. The natives kill the missionary; he flies to arms in defense of Christianity; fights for it; conquers for it; and takes the market as a reward from heaven . . .

In another German textbook one finds a quotation from President Abraham Lincoln intended to reflect on our democracy:

I am not, and never have been, in favor of bringing about in any form the social and political equality of the white and black races. There is a physical difference, which forbids them from living together on terms of social and political equality. And, inasmuch as they cannot so live, while they do remain together, there must be a position of superior and inferior, and I, as much as any other man, am in favor of having the superior position assigned to the whites.

In German instruction the following quotation is taken from the introduction of Schiller's *Die Räuber*:

Not because of cunning reasoning like Franz, but rather because of drive and race, Spiegelberg is the born criminal. In nothing did he belie the typical Jew. Wandering around internationally in eternal unrest, he is just as much at home in London and Paris as in Leipzig; he knows how to negotiate his shady deals and to obtain his own advantage everywhere. He has a sharp and sure eye for people and relationships and is a master speaker, when it's a question of making a rascal out of an honest man.

Latin proved to be a favorite vehicle for instruction in the glory of war and self-sacrifice in battle through slogans as, for example:

"Oderint, dum metuant"—"Let them hate if only they fear." "Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori"—"It is sweet and fitting to die for one's country." "Patriae nos damus gloriae"—"We dedicate ourselves to the glory of our country." "In periculo non aurum auxilium sed ferrum"—"In danger gold is of no help, but iron (the sword)." "Ornamenta viri arma"—"Arms are the ornaments of man."

The foreword of an elementary book in Latin makes no bones of the purpose: "Above all, however, selections have been chosen in which heroic deeds are the principal point of interest or where the old military virtues are apparent of obedience, self-sacrifice, courage in battle, leadership, and following without question."

An arithmetic text contained the following:

"On the Adolf-Hitler March of the *HJ* from East Prussia to the Reich Party Day, the distance of 930 km from Swinemünde to the camp of destination was covered between 1200 hours 24 July and 1200 hours 7 September. Daily march?"

And finally a quotation from a textbook used for instruction in shorthand reads:

"No people on earth has taken the perfection of its shorthand so seriously as have the Germans. *Only* in Germany . . . *only* here . . . and in *no other nation* of the world . . . the same stenographic flag waves over all Germany."

I am sure that you will not be surprised to learn that after American educators had waded through textbooks filled with this kind of propaganda they threw out, or only conditionally approved, 51 per cent of the English textbooks used in the schools; 56 per cent of the arithmetics; 81 per cent of the geographies; 76 per cent of the Latin texts and 73 per cent of the history textbooks. It was textbooks of this kind which had conditioned the minds of German youth and laid the seed deeply and broadly for World War II.

I presume that one's first reaction is to assume that in this country where the content of textbooks is in no wise dictated by the Federal Government we are not at all guilty of such gross foul play with the minds of our students. Yet as I have remarked on other occasions, our textbooks certainly used to do a good job of twisting the tail of the British Lion and thus helped to produce a deep seated anti-British attitude which still persists. Recent studies by the American Council on Education to see what our school textbooks say and do not say with respect to the Latin American countries, Canada, and Soviet Russia are most revealing. The description of the Panama Canal incident, the complacent attitude toward Latin America, and the inadequacy of treatment are only three examples of matters which interfere no end with the Good Neighbor Policy.

With respect to Russia, it is not so much what is said but what is not said that is at fault. Dr. Richard W. Burkhardt, the Director of this study, reports that "1.5 per cent of the average senior high school American history is devoted to the Soviet Union. . . . A student seeking to discover the history of American-Soviet relations would be hard put to it to find such an account in the textbooks. Quite certainly American students must be taught that the United States does not exist in a vacuum but rather as one of two leaders in the world community. It should follow that Americans need also to know a

great deal about their partner in the leadership of that community in order to maintain peace, indeed life itself, in the years to come."

And so there is good reason to assume, I take it, that even our own textbooks are not faultless, although I think we can now say that we have done more than any other country in the world to examine our textbooks carefully and critically in order to eliminate statements which breed ill-will between us and other countries. The results of these researches are being vigorously called to the attention of textbook companies and authors who seem commendably anxious to repair the damage and to revise their texts. A little insistence from you people who use them will further stimulate their good intentions.

But no modern school man depends entirely on textbooks which inevitably have a way of getting out of date rapidly for teaching purposes. They must be supplemented by school curricula and other teaching materials. I suggest, for example, that if you have never had a unit of work on the contribution of China or other countries in the Orient to world civilization, as is very frequently the case in the schools, you might very well repair this deficiency at once respecting this populous, rich, and exceedingly significant area of the world. You can find a limited number of pamphlets to assist you in your worthy endeavor.

What I am trying to say is that no one in the world but the school administrator and the teacher is in the long run responsible for what is being taught our children and youth. If then you really are desirous of bringing about any attitude of peace and good-will in the minds of those who are entrusted to your care, as I am sure you would all agree vigorously, you must take the time and the trouble to see to it that your pupils read and study those books which will both inform them and instill in them a will toward world peace.

But, I need not tell you that the textbooks are not everything. There is the teacher whose personality, preparation, and attitude toward life determines so much of what is lodged in the mind of her pupils. In a recent report on teacher training in Germany, Thomas Alexander states that in the teacher training institutions, during the Hitler regime, "Every course, every lecture, even recreation and sport was permeated with Nazi doctrine and theory." The teachers, too, therefore, bear a heavy load of guilt for World War II which is now being punished by the removal of more than one-half of them from their teaching positions.

What can we do about this matter in the United States? For years we have had the splendid services of the Institute of International Education, the American Association of University Women, and numerous other organizations working in the field of the exchange of students and faculty members on colleges. They have done an admirable job which is so well known that I shall not attempt to elaborate on it here. But I want to point out that important as is this matter of exchange of personnel at the level of universities

and colleges and as permeating as their influence has doubtless been throughout the educational and civilian world, it is not enough. World peace and good-will are not going to be assured in this country until it has been made a vital part of the lives of school teachers in the cities, in the rural school districts, in short in every little red school house throughout our broad land. It is well known that studying the printed page alone will not always vitalize instruction. The teacher needs the personal experience of seeing how other people live and of associating with those who have had similar experiences. It is my firm conviction, therefore, that if we really want to influence the minds of our school administrators and school teachers who, in turn, will pass on their impressions to students toward international peace and good-will, it will be necessary to encourage and facilitate foreign travel and study, not of a few hundred school teachers and administrators, but literally of thousands of them.

Last year, the Association for Childhood Education brought several Norwegian teachers who had been leaders of the underground movement to this country. They returned filled with admiration for America. This year, there are seventy-seven British teachers in this country and a like number of American teachers in Great Britain. Next year, the Canadian-American Committee, which is in part sponsored by the American Council on Education, proposes to bring about what after all would seem very simple to institute, namely, the exchange of Canadian and United States teachers. Who can doubt but that the exchange of properly prepared mature people at this level of instruction, if undertaken in large numbers, might not be fully as important, if not more important, than the necessarily smaller number at the level of higher education?

I hope, therefore, that when the provisions of the Fulbright Law, providing funds out of the sale of surplus war property in foreign countries, make it possible for American citizens to study abroad in substantial numbers, a considerable portion of those who are selected for this purpose will be school administrators and school teachers, who will thereby have an experience which may well have a profound influence over the minds of American men and women in this and succeeding generations.

But even the teacher and teaching materials are not enough. We all learn by doing and so it seems to me that every school and every college, if it really means business about this matter of international education, must have programs of action in which both teachers and students participate. For years many colleges have had cosmopolitan clubs admitting equal numbers of Americans and foreigners. This movement has blossomed with International Houses at Columbia University, Chicago University, and the University of California. They have undoubtedly helped to stimulate and deepen interest in international matters in those institutions.

Then, too, there are the College International Relations Clubs stimulated by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. In May of this year, so a recent report of the Endowment states, there were seven hundred and twenty-two College International Relations Clubs in the United States and its territorial possessions. Regional conferences of the representatives of these clubs which proved so helpful between the two World Wars have since been revived. The Clubs themselves engage in an extended series of activities which tend to strengthen the interest and knowledge of students in international affairs.

But no greater opportunity for a program of action with respect to international education is presented to both schools and colleges, I feel sure, than the challenge which is now being thrown out by the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction. This Commission, which was set up during the past spring, is composed of representatives from approximately twenty of the leading educational organizations. Its business is to identify educational needs in the war devastated countries, to stimulate teachers and students to contribute toward these needs out of their financial resources, no matter how meager, and to facilitate the shipment of educational supplies and equipment abroad.

The American people have responded in a truly remarkable manner to supplying the physical wants of food, clothing, and shelter for those who have been in great distress both among our allies and former foes. It is right and proper that the relief of physical wants should come first and I have no doubt that many in this audience have had the satisfaction of sending a package through CARE or some other worthy organization. There is still a great need for physical relief. Only three months ago Dr. Hill and I saw many children in the German schools who toward midday had had no breakfast. But as I pointed out to you last year, the little children of the war devastated countries are growing up with crooked minds as well as with crooked bodies because their school houses have been destroyed, their teachers have been killed, many have no desks, they have few books, little paper and often no pencils. Surely, the teachers and the students in the schools and colleges of this country do not know these distressing and critical conditions or they would rise to meet at least some of the elementary educational needs of children and youth in war ravaged countries. I say to you in all seriousness that if you are really in earnest about this business of promoting friendly relations with other people throughout the world you will resolve here and now in your school or your college to do something about it. I speak in urgent terms not only because of the sagging morale which you can help to lift over there but equally because of the intense sympathetic interest in the welfare of other people which your actions will arouse in you and your associates. A program of action in your school or college with respect to educational reconstruction abroad can't help but arouse immediate in-

terest among students and teachers. It can easily be the center of your program of international education for the next two years. If you will undertake such a program with vigor and determination, you will do much to condition the minds of men in this and succeeding generations toward international peace and good-will.

I presume that even with textbooks, teachers, and concrete programs of action you may still feel inadequate to so great a responsibility. We all do. Hence, the necessity of uniting our efforts through educational organizations such as this and especially through world organizations both intergovernmental and voluntary, for guidance and encouragement. Let it be remembered first of all that we have, at long last, born out of the suffering of World War II, a United Nations which, although imperfect now, comprises all the great powers of the world and will in time become all inclusive. It is not going to fail. We have the machinery for international peace. All that we need is the "know how" and the will to make it work.

We have in the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization other specialized international organizations and a great host of voluntary international associations. UNESCO concluded its first meeting in Paris only two days ago. A whole host of coöperative educational ventures are being planned, among which is a world-wide study of textbooks, a study looking toward the removal of illiteracy throughout the world, the publication of educational statistics, a study of education for international understanding, and the facilitation of educational reconstruction in the war-devastated countries. Work on these projects will be interpreted to American schools and colleges through the National Commission for UNESCO composed of one hundred persons, sixty of whom represent educational, scientific, and cultural organizations in this country, including the National Education Association, the Association of American Colleges, and the American Council on Education. Through the representatives of these and other educational organizations which comprise the Commission, you will not only be able to secure assistance and guidance in the planning of your programs but you will share equally the opportunity and the obligation to make your wishes known as to the activities and studies in which UNESCO should engage. UNESCO thus becomes a great coöperative enterprise in which the educational organizations, including the Southern Association and its member schools and colleges, join both to arm the minds of the millions of children and young people with that knowledge which is necessary to intelligent action and to reorient their spirits toward the ways of peace.

I have a deep faith in the machinery of the United Nations to effect and preserve world peace. But it is, after all, merely machinery. Whether or not it succeeds depends on something far deeper and more basic than international machinery. It depends on the provisions which we are willing to make in order to influence and condition the minds of men.

The members of the Mission who went to Germany were told that the re-education of the German people was the most difficult and most important task of American Military Government. Yet when we arrived there we found that of the seven thousand persons comprising American Military Government approximately fifty individuals were assigned the task of planning for the re-education of eighteen million Germans. A few days ago, UNESCO adopted a budget of \$6,950,000. Compare that paltry sum with the millions which are being planned for the United Nations and the various specialized agencies comprising the machinery of international government. Compare it, too, with the insignificant sums of money which our Federal government, through the U. S. Office of Education and the Information and Cultural Division of the State Department, has so far seen fit to expend on education for world peace.

What this means, my friends, is that so long as citizens and educators cannot induce our government to provide adequately those financial resources to assist us in the implementation of peace in the minds and hearts of men and of the children and youth under our care it is doubly necessary that as members of voluntary organizations and as individual teachers and administrators we do our full part, even to the point of personal sacrifice, to bring about that era so long hoped for and prayed for, peace and good-will among men.

Problems Facing Graduate Education in the South*

BY JOHN CLARK JORDAN

Dean of the Graduate School, University of Arkansas

Before I enter upon a discussion of the subject assigned to me I must bring to this assemblage of the educators of the Southern Association greetings from my institution, the University of Arkansas, which it becomes now my responsibility to represent. Furthermore, I must express my personal appreciation of the honor done me in the invitation to come here. These courtesies done, I proceed to my topic, "Problems Facing Graduate Education in the South."

It happens, by way of introducing myself, that in addition to being a member of the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools, I am, also, at the present time Secretary of the Graduate Council of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, and that, as such, I have had to be responsible for several years for the formulation of programs for the group of graduate deans of that Association. As a means of developing my subject, then, I think it may be well to give some notion of what graduate deans of both these Associations are asking and of what seem to them to be pertinent problems.

I do so without apology to the extent that it must be obvious that the subject given me has certain implications. For one thing, it must be obvious that there are problems of graduate education yet unsolved, whether in the South or in any other area. And for another thing, it is equally obvious that certain other problems have a specificity such that whereas they constitute problems for the South they do not constitute problems for other sections of the country—that is to say, their Southernness is their specificity. With both of these aspects of the subject we must be concerned. First, then, something of the general problems in order that you may know what is in the minds of graduate deans the country over.

Perhaps I can best do this by anticipating briefly some of the topics listed for round table discussion at the Land-Grant meeting in Chicago next week, many of which were also topics of discussion at the recent Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools here in Memphis. One of these problems is that of graduate extension centers, that is, of extension centers as separate from the main campus and from the regularly organized session of the institution. In areas of heavy urban population many chemists, physicists, engineers, and others engaged in scientific and other pursuits de-

* An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

ire instruction outside the regular day-time sessions. Some of these requests are for courses offered at various places, laboratories, for example, in industrial plants, where several hundred scientific workers are employed. The question arises as to what should be the relation of such enterprises to the graduate school. Who is to be in charge of such programs? Faculty members who are probably heavily loaded with campus duties? Highly trained specialists employed within the laboratory who, though competent within their fields to do specialized research, may lack at the same time experience in the processes of effective teaching and perhaps have no interest in such activity? This is a problem which is acute in some parts of the country and for all I know may have become acute at certain places in the South.

More than the matter of administration is involved, for much of the traditional philosophy of academic residence and other procedures is at issue. How much of what we have thought of as genuine graduate education is possible under such conditions? How much of such activity is mere accumulation of graduate credit? How much is merely service of utilitarian kind to advance skill but not knowledge? Is the time honored requirement of residence to become outmoded? Can such study be coordinated with present-day concepts, or shall we have to make new definitions to fit new conditions?

The matter of graduate extension centers is related to the larger matter of extension credit in general. Few, perhaps none, of the graduate schools recognize credit for work done through correspondence study, but credit for work done by university extension is a vital issue. For the most part graduate schools have put very specific limitations on the amount of credit that may be so earned, and upon the conditions under which it may be earned. To evade these limitations the matter is being approached from another direction, and as a result, the definition of the word *residence* becomes a question of some importance. Is living in the place where the university is situated the primary factor in the definition of *residence*? If not, what is? Under what conditions can work done elsewhere be regarded as fulfilling the requirement? The attack is under way. What the outcome will be, what the outcome ought to be, are questions to which the answers are yet unknown.

The matter of graduate extension centers of the kind in question is to be presented by Dean Russell of Rutgers University. A matter to be opened by Dean Bunker of Massachusetts Institute of Technology concerns the relation of the graduate school to research carried on with Federal and industrial support. This topic involves consideration of patent policy. It should take cognizance also of the special conditions for accepting fellowships sponsored outside the graduate school by industry or by Federal or other grants. Such undertakings might well involve army and navy problems of personnel, and army and navy research, scientific and otherwise.

The inauguration of the Oak Ridge Institute for Nuclear Studies and the development of technological institutes like the one established in Wisconsin and like that just getting under way in Virginia and others of similar nature are other aspects of this same problem, as are other similar research centers, which have no even formal relation to a graduate school. In this matter of subsidized research it may be well to speak of an article recently published in England by Sir William Larke, now chairman of the Research Committee of the Federation of British Industries, in which is presented a brief account of the association between industries and the universities onward from the middle of the nineteenth century, and in which is opened up a view of the mutual good which may derive from the almost limitless potentialities of such association in the future. I have not time to give here even a summary of Sir William's article, and I call attention to it only to show that British industrialists and educators are, like those in America, alert to the fact that industry must, as Sir William says, "collaborate to the fullest extent with the universities to secure the maximum result from our at present limited resources in trained man-power."

Related to this question but not, as it happens, on the program at Chicago, is the problem of graduate medical education, a difficult and as yet practically untouched problem in so far as the relation of medical education to the university graduate school is concerned. The matter is complicated by the traditions of the past as regards the origin of medical schools and the development of their own procedures in formulation of their curricula and their methods of instruction. It is complicated, too, by the development of their own standards of evaluation independently of colleges and universities, and of their own standardizing and accrediting agencies. There is more to the question than whether a young doctor shall receive a master's degree upon the completion of his period of hospital residency. There is the vastly more important matter of the relation of the graduate school to study and research done in the research hospitals. Much thinking needs yet to be done and many prejudices need yet to be broken down before the resources of great graduate schools and of great medical schools and hospitals can be successfully coördinated and mutual understandings developed.

Still another topic under consideration at Chicago, to be opened by Dean Gray of the University of Illinois and Dean Drennon of Mississippi State College, is that of the organization of the graduate school itself. A most casual glance through university catalogues, the most casual conversation on the subject, will reveal widely diverse practices. Diversity is in itself a thoroughly desirable aspect of American education, and no one so far as I know would attempt to argue for uniformity as a consummation devoutly to be wished. But how, within the reasonable limits of diversity, to secure results that will be reasonably commensurable is a question of no mean proportions. The consequence is that there is no uniformity of values and that even

a sophisticated observer is puzzled to know the relative merits of the results. One is reminded of the ancient limerick:

There once was a bonnie Scotch laddie,
 Who said, as he put on his plaidie:
 "I've just had a dish
 O' unco' guid fish."
 What had 'e had? Had 'e had haddie?

You pay your money, but you never know whether you've had haddie or fish of another sort.

The matter of graduate school organization is closely related to that of accreditation of institutions for graduate work, to be opened at Chicago by Dean McIntosh of Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, retiring President of this Conference. The Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools some years ago drafted, and has just reaffirmed with slight changes, a set of principles for the master's degree, and has just adopted at its Memphis meeting a similar statement for the doctorate. These reports and the somewhat similar Robbins report on the master's degree presented several years ago to the Association of American Universities and discussed at the meeting of the Association last year have had great influence for good. But the accreditation of institutions for graduate work is quite another matter, and one which has thus far been avoided.

The question of accreditation came out into the open two years ago at a meeting in Chicago, when it was charged that the recognition of institutions for graduate work was unfortunately linked up with membership in or approval by the Association of American Universities. It was further charged that the Association of American Universities constitutes a monopoly and that membership in the Association *ipso facto* constitutes a kind of accreditation which works to the good of the member institutions and to the harm of others. At any rate the accreditation of graduate work is still very much up in the air. Not the least significant aspect of the problem is the determination of what agency shall undertake the task of accreditation and assume the responsibility.

This important topic of accreditation was the subject of a report to the recent Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools by Dean McGuire of the Catholic University of America. Following the discussion of Dean McGuire's report the Conference adopted a resolution looking toward collaboration with the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, with the hope that the Commission might see its way to undertaking the actual process of accreditation. I am happy to be able to say that initial steps have already been taken which tend toward the fulfillment of this hope, and that in the Southern area at least some progress is likely to be made.

It is interesting to remark in passing that again the Association of American Universities is, though involuntarily, concerned as an accrediting influence inasmuch as the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools stipulated admission to the list of colleges approved by the Association as a desirable prerequisite to any institution's embarking upon a program of graduate education.

The question of the admission of students to graduate school has been a perennial one and will continue to be discussed. The matter, however, has become acute in many institutions by reason of vastly increased enrollments by taxing of resources of both men and money, and by the demands made for admission from students not only from outside the state but from foreign countries as well. What adaptations, if any, should be made with regard to veterans or to foreign students? What policies should prevail—rigid exclusion of all but a few carefully selected individuals (selected by what criteria?) or very generous opening of doors to all who can show that, as at the University of California, eligibility for graduate work (to be determined how?) is the only criterion for admission. The problem is economic as well as academic (particularly in the South) and its solution must ultimately necessitate a reconciliation between demands for admission and resources available to care for those who are admitted. This problem is to be discussed at Chicago by Vice Dean Lindstrom of the Iowa State College.

Dean Blegen of the University of Minnesota is to present a brief discussion of the subject of Interdepartmental Programs in Graduate Education. He spoke on this topic recently at the meeting of the Association of American Universities and was, as he says in his letter, "pleased to learn that in many universities there are practices and experiments going on that do not seem to be reflected in the published bulletins of the various institutions."

The last subject I bring up, to be presented by Dean Kern of Pennsylvania State College, is that of the education of college teachers as a function of the graduate school. That this question is vital to the South is evidenced by the study and series of conferences conducted by the American Council on Education a few years ago. Again the question is more than the immediately obvious one of manning college faculties with qualified teachers, for again the philosophy of graduate instruction is the issue—whether the pursuit of knowledge or the direction of training to some predetermined end—whether the discovery of truth or the utilitarian service of graduate education to the cause of pedagogy. It surely is a problem not to be answered by the multiplication of alphabetical combinations to represent degrees or the creation of new ones. The question will not be answered until the graduate schools themselves come to some unanimity of opinion as to what constitutes the real function and to some unanimity of resolution to abide by their definition of that function.

Some of you have no doubt read the book published by the Harvard University Press by Howard Mumford Jones, called *Education and World Tragedy*. I was interested in a review of it in the *New York Times* a couple of weeks or so ago, and should like to cite a passage or two as evidence of the confusion which clearly exists among us. Says Mr. Bryson, the reviewer:

The author of these lectures begins with an indictment of our Western civilization in terms of our slaughtered men and our battered souls. He offers, in so far as college education is concerned two remedies for the future. One is a realignment of the college program in this country by which we hope to train our people for stable peace. The other is a plan for separating research training from the training of college teachers in the graduate schools. The six-point plan for general education in the colleges is the most interesting of the two proposals for the reader who does not know at first hand the bitterness, the exaggerated meanings, and the true importance of the civil war in the graduate schools over the training of our trainers.

When he comes to making suggestions for the reorganization of the graduate colleges, reflecting perhaps on the lessons he learned when he was dean of the Graduate School at Harvard, Mr. Jones brings forth what he knows will look to the general public like a mouse. But his suggestions are more important than they at first seem. The functions of the university, which include, surely, to teach men to be good citizens and also to be leaders if they have the capacity to teach men to be teachers, and to expand the frontiers of present knowledge—these functions are never kept clear and the result is bitterness, confusion, and failure.

It may be a cure, then, as Mr. Jones suggests, to keep training for research strictly separate from training for teaching.

It is not my province to comment on the soundness of either Mr. Jones's proposal or the evident approval of it by Mr. Bryson. I have introduced Mr. Jones's thesis merely to show that "civil war in the graduate schools over the training of our teachers" does not deal with a hypothetical situation.

I hope I have not bored you with this account of the topics up for discussion. It seemed to me the quickest way to bring before you the problems that seem significant to the men responsible for the conduct and administration of graduate work over the vast area of the United States. I may say in conclusion of this phase of my subject that many other topics were suggested which for one reason or another could not be included on the program, some of them because they had already been discussed at previous meetings of the group. I can name a few of them here: What use shall graduate schools make of the Graduate Record Examination and of other diagnostic tests? Should modern language be a strict requirement for the master's degree? Should graduate credit be allowed for technical training or experience in the armed forces? To what extent, if at all, should traditional requirements be waived or modified for veterans? To what extent should graduate students be encouraged or allowed to transfer graduate credit from one institution to another? To what extent is the career of a graduate student impaired by partial employment as an undergraduate teacher or as a routine assistant in a research laboratory? To what extent

should very highly specialized curricula be provided? Can satisfactory techniques be worked out for the evaluation of a student's undergraduate program as prerequisite to a satisfactory graduate program? Should graduate schools require actual experience in the student's chosen field before granting him an advanced degree? To what extent are inter-institutional programs desirable or feasible? All these questions and others show how wide is the range of interest in subjects for discussion and how much yet remains to be agreed upon before even a semblance of order can evolve from the chaos of the present. It is conceivable that they show diversity of opinion itself to be not only an inevitable but even enviable state of affairs.

I count myself fortunate in knowing and in having known a great many deans of graduate schools and in having had association with them in one way or another. The problems I have outlined briefly, and others like them, show how earnestly these men are concerned with the responsibilities that rest upon them, and how seriously they are endeavoring to promote effective programs for their students in so far as their resources and vision enable them to do. That they do not agree among themselves is perhaps the hope of their ultimate salvation.

In this connection I was interested to read especially the section on Graduate Education in an article on "Higher Education in the United States" by President Carmichael, of the Carnegie Foundation, published in the first number of a new British journal called the *Universities Quarterly*. President Carmichael remarks to his English readers that "the growth in numbers of graduate students has kept pace with that of the colleges, but the curriculum and structure of graduate schools have been more static than any other element in the American educational system," a statement with which I personally agree. He does, however, give this encouragement, that in his view "there are many signs that the graduate schools are undergoing a renaissance." If diversity of opinion and desire to confer over problems is evidence of renaissance, there would seem to be support for President Carmichael's note of optimism.

In graduate education, as in most other aspects of life, these men fall into two groups. There are those who long for concrete statements of what constitutes good graduate work and of what procedures they may follow to achieve it. They want to know whether a thesis is required, and if so how much credit it is to receive; whether a foreign language is required and if so what and how much; whether a student must have so many hours in his majors and minors—so many, no more, no less. On the other hand there are graduate deans who have no interest in prescriptions and regulations, who prefer individual judgments as applied to individual students rather than general laws applicable to all. And it is safe to say that as long as these divergent schools of thought prevail there will always be a fund of topics for

argument at meetings like the one to be held in Chicago next week and like the conference of deans of Southern graduate schools just closed here in Memphis.

I have devoted a considerable portion of the time allotted me in a presentation of problems facing graduate education universally, and therefore by implication facing the Southern graduate education. But I have not forgotten that in my opening analysis I remarked that certain problems of graduate education are matters of particular concern to the South. It is time now to turn to one or two of these.

One of the most obvious, in so far as publicly supported institutions are concerned, and soon to be one of the most pressing, is that of the professional and graduate education of Negroes. Indifference to the subject of Negro education can no longer smooth over the problem. And the day is not far distant when such subterfuges as have been practiced will no longer avail. The Gaines decision has essentially changed the complexion of things. For present indifference and subterfuge can continue only so long as the Negroes themselves are willing for them to continue. The Negroes have the law on their side in this matter.

For several years I have been a member of the committee set up by legislative action in the State of Arkansas to administer a fund appropriated by the legislature to pay tuition for Negro students for out-of-state study, and I have watched the growth of interest on the part of the Negroes of the State in graduate education. Such subsidy has, under wise Negro leadership, been a fairly satisfactory solution, but payment of out-of-state tuition is only a step in the process. The Negroes know that fact. It is only lack of organization among themselves which motivates their acquiescence in an adjustment like this. Still more will they be dissatisfied in states which make no attempt at a solution of any kind.

It has been proposed, originally, I believe, by a conference of state commissioners of education, that the Southern states join in a coöperative effort to create regional institutions, with functions carefully considered and allocated to particular needs. This solution, I confess, holds no attraction for me, as it seems impractical in administration and unsound in policy. It is not my place to comment further on the matter, except, perhaps, to say that I do not see how any real development can come out of the suggestion. A series of conferences on Negro graduate education held during the summer of 1915 established clearly the fact that the Negroes themselves do not look with favor upon such plans.

The payment of out-of-state tuition and the establishment of regional institutions both, it seems to me, evade the issue. When the time comes for a decision, two alternatives are likely to be possible. The State of Texas is indicating that she may make one of these. She is discussing the building of a university for Negroes which will satisfy the obligation of law. To what

extent other states can or will make this choice remains to be seen. The other alternative is the admission of Negro students to institutions originally created for white students. To what extent the Southern states will make this choice also remains to be seen.

At the Conference of Southern Graduate Deans which I have previously mentioned, Dean Scroggs of Louisiana State University made a report on a symposium held not long ago at Fiske University at which he was the only official white representative. The topic for discussion was: What should be our position toward the current alternative proposals for the provision of graduate and professional education for Negroes by the Southern states? It is evident from Dean Scroggs's report that the Negro educators are fully aware of the meaning of the problem, and that from their point of view the only obvious solution is one which the Southern states are least likely to wish to face.

If the Southern states were abundant in financial resources the problem of Negro education would undoubtedly be less acute. The matter of finances, however, is not one that can be ignored by any of the Southern states, and is indeed at the heart of many of our most urgent problems of graduate education. At least we have conjured ourselves into thinking that it is at the heart of our problems.

Through our failure to provide sufficient income, we have in the whole South created only four institutions which have secured membership in the Association of American Universities to be recognized as institutions capable of carrying on graduate work of a high order in many fields. Isolated instances will of course occur to all of us, like the research in tropical medicine at Tulane; but, nevertheless, it can be truly said that we have not developed in sufficient numbers graduate centers of high quality.

Even in the graduate schools we have developed, we have failed, with few exceptions, to achieve distinction. We have not attracted and held great scholars in any considerable numbers—many capable men, yes, but outstandingly significant men, very few. Again, we have not, as any survey will show, built up libraries and laboratories where advanced students and research workers can have facilities to work with. Candidates for the master's degrees are often obliged to import materials from outside, and as for doctor's degrees—they are for the most part out of the question. To say that we cannot afford books and apparatus and professors must not blind us to the fact that for great areas throughout the South graduate centers for advanced study do not exist. A prominent educator to whom I recently put the question, "What is the greatest problem facing graduate education in the South?" replied unhesitatingly, "The lack of centers for graduate instruction."

Lack of graduate education centers is not our only deficiency. The lack of great graduate schools is a symptom rather than a cause. It springs from

something deeper than lack of money. One does not have to be a puritanical lie-hard to see that we people of the South pay for the things we want badly enough. We have become so accustomed to thinking of ourselves as economically bankrupt that we hide behind our poverty as self-justification for not doing the things we have a kind of notion we ought to do but do not care enough about to undertake the doing thereof. As for education, we do not actually want education badly enough to pay for it and to make any sacrifices for it. Granted for the moment that we are relatively poorer than some other parts of the country, we still have a choice as to what we will do with what resources we have at our disposal. You know the story of the family that wanted so badly to go to the circus that it sold the kitchen stove to get the money. We have money for cars, gasoline, cosmetics, drinks, tobacco, and intercollegiate athletics. One need not be out of patience with cars, gasoline, cosmetics, tobacco, drinks, and intercollegiate athletics. But to complain of having no money for education is simply to admit that we would rather have cars, gasoline, cosmetics, cigarettes, and athletics than education. And so I think it may be truly said that the major problem of graduate education facing the South is the South itself.

Many factors contribute to this paradox. I can speak of them only briefly. One is that we have not developed a very genuine interest in graduate study for its own sake. I have not looked up figures on the subject, but one does not need statistics to know that a high percentage of advanced degrees have gone to persons in one way or another associated with the secondary school systems. Principals and superintendents have been forced under obligation to some accrediting agency to secure degrees in order to hold places of administrative responsibility. And teachers have been forced by their school boards to secure master's degrees by reason of some few paltry dollars a month to be added to their meager salaries. To many such persons scholarship is a matter of no importance. Such candidates have no regard whatever for the program they undertake, just so it is the one that will get them a degree in the shortest possible time. They come into the graduate office, throw down their transcript, say, "Look at this transcript; tell me the shortest way out." We shall find it difficult to create graduate schools in that way. It's like going into a railway restaurant and saying, "My train leaves in ten minutes, give me whatever you have ready."

Furthermore, certain psychological characteristics hamper our development. We are too easily satisfied with appearances. We like to say, "Yes, we have a graduate school." "Yes, I have a master's degree." But as for quality,—all cows look alike in the dark. Again, we are smug. We are too much satisfied with ourselves as we are. We have got on very well. Why bother? We resent change. Especially do we resent change in our traditions and our opinions. Graduate scholarship is pretty hard on opinions. As one of the large Southern church councils—so the newspapers reported—

resolved in its general meeting a few years ago, "We believe in research as long as it does not contradict what we already know." We are given over to inertia. It is easier for us to tolerate conditions which we grant should be changed than to set about changing them. We have developed a false sense of superiority and over-confidence in our own abilities which make the reception of new ideas not only difficult but even—so we think—quite unnecessary. We are sensitive to criticism. Our reaction is resentment rather than constructive overcoming of our deficiencies. Graduate scholarship is ruthless in its revelations of truth, and we are not always willing to hear the truth.

This analysis is one-sided. My assignment was to point out *problems*, and I have tried to say what I believe to be one or two serious handicaps in the way of progress in graduate education. In spite of what I have said about obstacles, there is much on the other side of the ledger. We have accomplished much. Graduate education in the South is a recent growth, after all. But we have resources that we have not yet touched. We have a history and a culture that we have not yet explored. We have possibilities in science, economics, social welfare, public health, literature, art that we have not yet dreamed of. The field is ours. It remains for us to take it.

Education, an Essential Investment*

By G. D. HUMPHREY

President, University of Wyoming

Perhaps you can imagine some of the pleasure that is mine in being here in Memphis for the Southern Association meeting. I was born and reared within eighty miles of Memphis, and I have attended many meetings of the Southern Association in this city. It is a pleasure to be back in the South and to see many of my friends again.

In planning to talk to you tonight on some subject which would fit into your general theme, "Problems Facing Education in the South," I decided that I might best discuss the subject, "Education, an Essential Investment." To preface my remarks, may I say that whatever statements I make about the problems of the South are not made critically. I was born and reared in Mississippi, and I have spent practically all of my life in this section. I think perhaps I have been able during the year and a half that I have been away to get a better perspective on the problems of the South in respect to other sections of our country than I ever had when I lived and worked here. Viewing the situation thus briefly from afar, I have been able to see some of the problems which, because of my nearness to them, perhaps I could not see when I was in the South. At any rate, as I discuss with you certain problems which Southern education faces, I would have you keep in mind that I do so not as an alien or a stranger, but as a native Southerner and as one who will always be vitally interested in seeing the South make every possible step forward.

May I add, too, that I believe in all sincerity that only a Southerner can fully understand something that *must* be understood before anything in the way of constructive criticism can be offered on the problems of the South. It is this: in spite of certain obvious economic, social, and educational lags, the South has a splendidly unique quality which no Southerner would want changed. We are a more homogeneous people than can be found in any other section of the country—people with similar ancestry, similar racial traditions, similar folkways. Fewer influences from other cultural patterns have infiltrated our mores and confused our attitudes. When Southerners unite in support of a cause, they move with powerful singleness of purpose. We have just seen a demonstration of this quality in the contribution made by the South during the war years—a record of accomplishment in manpower and leadership unsurpassed by that of any other section.

* An address delivered before the banquet meeting of the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1946.

In what we now think of nostalgically as the Old South, this leadership stemmed from one social group as its privilege and its duty. It took most frequently in those days the form of statesmanship. Now with a shifting and changing in our social patterns, this leadership has become disseminated and has often been exercised without due regard for the duty implicit in the privilege. It must be rechanneled and redirected, perhaps now into educational and economic currents, and with full awareness of the responsibility involved.

Certainly our whole country has never had greater need of strong and effective leadership than at present. We have just passed through the most destructive war in the world's history, and a fundamental change in the pattern of world living has resulted from this tremendous social and economic upheaval. Everywhere men are trying to pierce the current gloom and confusion to discern the outlines of the world tomorrow. Life will be different we know. Patterns of living will have to be modified. In this future of uncertainty our best hope for safety lies in the development of wise, courageous leaders and of an informed, courageous citizenry. It is my belief that to insure wisdom in our leaders and competence in our people, we must put our hearts and our energies into the building of a strong educational program.

The solution of all crises requires the intelligent participation of all the people. Intelligent participation requires education, and the organized schools are accepted as the vehicles for providing an educated citizenship that will be alert and able to do its own thinking; a citizenship that is well versed in principles governing the lives of people, individually and collectively; a citizenship that can use the skills required to deal with other individuals and the skills necessary to solve problems; a citizenship that has the proper attitudes and is motivated by a desire to make the world a better place in which to live. Participation by all citizens is becoming increasingly necessary because people from the humbler ranks of life are demanding—and they can not be criticized for making the demand—that they be allowed some part in the direction of public affairs. Participation will develop their potentialities, their intelligence, and their self-respect. In other words, it will educate them.

The schools—from the elementary school through the university—must then not only provide for the formal education of the citizenship but must also lead in the solution of state and regional problems. Not all of these problems are concerned with learning the accumulated knowledge of the past, for some of the most important are problems in coping with the relentless social and economic forces at work today.

We are living in a world today that was born when the Wright brothers took off on their successful flight and that came of age when the first atomic bomb exploded on the experimental field in New Mexico. The develop-

ment of miraculous means of communication and transportation has tied the world together; the use of atomic energy has made it vitally essential that we understand and work with our neighbors if we are to survive. Survival will be insured only by providing educational opportunities for our young people and by making available to all citizens a broad program of adult education.

Despite the fact that many of our nation's leading business men feel that educational patterns today differ a little from those of their own school days, educators realize that the difference is tremendous. They know that our schools must now prepare students for the vastly complex world in which they are living today and in which they will live tomorrow. They are aware that our schools must now include in their curriculums many fields of information and study which actually did not exist a generation or two ago.

It follows that education, formal and informal, is, as never before, an essential investment for the advancement of agriculture, industry, commerce, and the professions. One has only to leaf through a few newspapers and magazines to see that at last labor and industrial leaders are facing the fact that they must consider ways to meet the crisis in the nation's schools because this crisis threatens the stability and prosperity of our whole economic structure. The time is ripe, therefore, for educators to reap the harvest by insisting upon improvement in the educational conditions of the nation.

The first step logically toward this improvement for every state and region is a thorough survey of its own educational status. Next, of course, should come immediately a redefining of aims and a reorganization of means to make education more effective. Then only can education be utilized fully in a program of social and economic advancement. Thus it follows that adequate educational opportunities constitute an investment which no state and no region—indeed no nation—can afford *not to make*.

Education is one investment that results almost surely in a systematic and clearly visible improvement in living standards. If an educational program meets directly the needs of the people it serves, the money spent for education is paralleled by an accompanying economic development. At no previous time perhaps have educational leaders in any section of the country had as great an opportunity to make a real contribution to a better way of life for their people as have Southern educators today. The people of the South have been made aware of external pressures—social, political, and economic—such as they have never known before. They have been aroused, have been shaken out of their accepted social patterns, and are eager for a new and improved living standard. To take advantage of this eagerness and to make the most of this challenging condition, Southern secondary schools, colleges, and universities must bestir themselves. As a part of their preparation for this task, they must insist upon adequate funds, sufficient and well-trained personnel, and freedom from political interferences. With-

in themselves they must inspire confidence in their leadership by displaying intramural coöperation, harmony in their instructional and research programs, and vision in their dealing with both short-term and long-range problems.

As I said in my introductory remarks, my period of absence from the South has revealed very forcibly to me a region with problems more acute in many ways than those of any other region in the nation. This revelation shows me more clearly a region which has often failed to make the contribution it might have made both regionally and nationally. This has not been intrinsic failure so much as a failure to contribute in proportion to ability and heritage.

I am only voicing what we all know when I say that in both social and economic fields more dynamic and effective leadership is needed in the South. Our secondary schools and colleges can not escape their responsibility for furnishing this leadership. If the South is to continue to make progress, the leaders in education in attendance at this meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools must, I think, become militant in the cause of improved living conditions for their people and, consequently, in the cause of increased productive and earning power throughout the whole South. It is no time for the line of least resistance in education, for lethargy and lack of ambition. Nor is it a time for gradual evolution. It is truly a time for action—for concerted and immediate attack. Educational leaders must evolve a program in the South which will concern itself with at least three principal phases: (1) the health and intellectual development of its people, (2) the discovery and utilization of all potentialities in natural resources, and (3) complete and realistic understanding of the interplay between institutions, attitudes, and resources and the general social structure of the South.

Perhaps the greatest single factor today contributing to educational and social problems in the South is economic instability. It is responsible for the present great migration of people from the South to other parts of the country. During the two great wars of the last quarter of a century many of our young men and women were stationed in other sections of the United States and came to realize for the first time that better working and living conditions exist outside of their own region. As a result of this realization, many of them have not wanted to return to the South to live and work. Thus men and women trained and educated in the South go to other sections and give to those sections the benefit of training and education received in the South. Similarly, since there are more numerous and more lucrative jobs elsewhere, people from outside the South are not being attracted to this section to live. Between 1920 and 1930, 130,000 more people left the South yearly than came here to settle. During the depression of the 1930's this figure dropped to 100,000. Again during the war and the defense program of the war years, people flooded out of the South because

where there were more jobs elsewhere. Between 1940 and 1945 the South suffered a net loss of about 900,000 people to the North and West. It is easy to see that if this migration continues, the South will soon be robbed of its best trained and educated people and a large per cent of its laborers. This migration from the South will slow down only when opportunities are provided here for more and better jobs through large-scale industrialization and better use of the resources of the region.

A comparison of income per capita in the South and in the whole United States is revealing. In the 1940-45 period, per capita income payments to the civilian population of the United States went this way: The United States average in 1940 was \$573; in 1945 it was \$1,158. The average of the Southern states in 1940 was \$337; in 1945 it was \$791. Since 1945 the average income in the South has no doubt declined because of the closing of many war plants.

The South's problem is essentially that of a predominantly agricultural region. Other sections of the country provide better incomes for their people because they are more industrialized and less agricultural than the South. In some Southern states, for example, the percentage of population directly or indirectly engaged in agriculture is as high as eighty-five per cent. An obvious solution, therefore, for the unfortunate economic situation of the South is a program designed to balance a traditional low income agricultural economy with a higher income industrial economy. The South has already made a beginning in this direction. During the war years it attracted national attention because of its rapid industrial growth. Great impetus was given this growth by the establishment of numerous war plants throughout the South before and during World War II. It is vitally important that these plants be utilized now for producing peacetime goods and thus provide opportunities for many Southern people to increase their income.

Because the income of the South is lower than the income of any other section of the country, the educational system of the region naturally faces discouraging financial problems. However, the volume of economic activity in various states rises or falls with the level of educational expenditure. This fact is clearly proved by the U. S. Chamber of Commerce study which shows that there is a close correlation between educational expenditures and retail sales, magazine circulation, and telephones. For comparison, let us consider one Western state and one Southern state. Average school expenditures per person over a period of years were \$102 in the Western state and \$21 in the Southern state. Retail sales in the Western state averaged \$69 per person; in the Southern state, they averaged \$104. In the Western state there were 175 telephones per 1,000 people and in the Southern state there were 36. The Selective Service Bulletin, published in April, 1942, and March, 1943, showed also that educational deficiency is clearly correlated with educational expenditure. Using the same states again, we

find that the deficiency in the Western state was 1.3 for every 1,000 registrants and in the Southern state it was 12.4. In two other Southern states the educational deficiency was greater—12.6 in one state and 12.9 in the other.

The close correlation between the economic system and the educational system of a region reminds me of what Claiborne in his *History of Mississippi* said many years ago. He wrote, "The Southern cotton planter raises more cotton to buy more Negroes to raise more cotton to buy more Negroes to raise more cotton." Because of this close correlation, it would be well for the South to realize that expenditure of money for the provision of adequate educational facilities is the most practical way to raise both the economic and the educational level.

More than sixty-five per cent of the money spent for education is spent for teachers' salaries. As long as low salaries exist, and they do exist over the entire country—particularly in the South—in elementary, secondary, and higher education, young men and young women of ability are not, and will not be, attracted to the teaching profession. There could of course be no kind of school without a curriculum and without some kind of buildings, and equipment, but we can never have genuine schools without the right kind of teachers—teachers who are trained, intelligent, resourceful, and who are interested in molding and shaping the boys and girls who come under their instruction into competent citizens and effective leaders in the affairs of state and nation. But how can an intelligent, trained person refuse an opportunity for financial success and social security in some other profession in order to become a teacher? How can he or she educate for democracy or economic equality when it is observed that janitors, truck drivers, or hod carriers, with little or no formal education, command more pay than teachers, who have spent years preparing themselves to "give service to humanity?" How can a teacher speak with enthusiasm of an educational system when some of his students earn more from part-time jobs after school or at night than he earns teaching those students!

It is a truism of course that the quality of our teachers, as well as their greater measure of devotion, has been an all-important factor in the vital part played by our schools in the building of our nation. It would seem, however, that this reservoir of strength is running dangerously low. If in these complex and confused times the schools are to continue their invaluable contribution toward building and developing our citizenry, if they are to continue their function of transmitting to the younger generation those things which preceding generations have found good, then some means must be devised to attract individuals of competence and wisdom into the teaching profession. Certainly one commonsense step which can be taken is to provide teachers with income commensurate with their training, ability, and responsibilities.

Someone has said that in these days of high salaries and big profits the teacher is the forgotten person. One way to arouse the public out of this

forgetfulness is for those engaged in the profession to demand better salaries and better working conditions. I do not mean to suggest, however, that the demand shall be made through such unions as those of the C.I.O. and the A.F. of L. These objectives can and should be achieved through membership in professional organizations which require native ability, thorough training, and professional and ethical procedures on the part of teachers; when such an organization can assume a militant attitude in its demand for the kind of salaries which teachers deserve and must have. Hitherto, teachers have not been selfish enough in their attempts to secure economic equality. We live in a selfish world, and we can not rightfully criticize any individual or group that expects and demands wages comparable to the services rendered. Indeed, if truth be told, we do not respect completely any individual or group that fails to make such demands.

What I am saying, of course, is that incentives must be developed, particularly in the assurance of higher salaries and better living conditions, which will hold our teachers in the profession and attract promising new recruits. Unless this is done, enterprising teachers are certain to seek more remunerative employment; few prospective teachers will enroll in our colleges of education for basic training; and few will enter our graduate schools to prepare themselves for the higher levels of the profession. Unless this is done—and done quickly—within the next few years all types of schools in the country will be insufficiently staffed or staffed with mediocre and poorly trained teachers. Vacant classrooms, mediocre teachers—these do not build a better world. Provision for better salaries for these in the teaching profession is therefore a vitally essential investment!

Underpaid, insufficiently trained personnel in our school rooms does not, however, wholly account for the inadequacy of Southern schools. Also contributing to this inadequacy are three other causes. One is the dual system of education which prevails in the South. As a Southerner, I can understand why this dual system must be maintained. The second cause is that in practically every state in the South there are too many institutions of higher learning supported by the state, by churches, and by private interests. The third cause I have already mentioned—that of political interference in state-supported institutions. It is with pride that I point out, however, that the Southern Association has been a bulwark of strength against the harmful influences of pernicious politicians. It will take time and careful planning to offset the effects of these three existing conditions in the South, but it will be done eventually.

Any discussion of educational problems anywhere will point ultimately to one aim—improving living conditions for all our people. Though the problems of the South seem many and, in some instances, peculiar to the region, they must be solved in the light of this general aim. If properly utilized, there are in the South enough resources—natural, human, social,

economic, and institutional—exhaustible and inexhaustible, to supply infinitely better living conditions for all its people. At the disposal of the present-day South is a wealth of scientific facts gleaned from careful probing into the status and potentialities of the region's resources. This huge reservoir of research findings stands filled almost to overflowing with information which, if properly used, could soon change the life and landscape of many a comparatively poverty-stricken locality.

In spite of all the effort and time that have been expended to accumulate this great reservoir of information, many people of the South still lack the knowledge and skills which they long for and need to motivate them in self-improvement. They have been unable to counteract the influence of their natural environment and of their continued association with others equally untaught and equally frustrated. But in time, and perhaps with a more insistent demand from educators that these scientific facts be utilized, there is no reason why the South can not develop an effective plan for social, economic, and educational progress on a large scale. This plan can come into being if there is proper use of the South's human energies, of its climate, of its life-giving land and waters, and of its vast resources in minerals and in plant and animal life.

Such a plan goes by the name of resource-use education. You are familiar with the work of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. Through this Committee an increasingly large number of educators and scientists are attempting to disseminate the fund of information about the region's resources in such a way as to insure the future scientific development of the communities and states of the area.

To determine what and how much information should be transmitted to the public at a given time, educators and scientists must study the available data, must note what economic and social trends are emerging in the South, and must then determine what redirection is necessary. Changing the pattern of resource-use is not a simple undertaking because, as all experts know, it means changing the way of life which a society supports. A change from an agricultural to an industrial economy means that countless individuals have to abandon skills they already possess to acquire other skills required by the new pursuits, and, what may be even more difficult, they must establish a new routine—a new pattern of living. It means that they must learn new customs and formulate new attitudes. In a word, new methods of channeling human energies must be devised to fit a new program of resource-use.

As I have said, the privilege of finding the best pattern for social and economic development in the South belongs primarily to educators. Among those who exercise this privilege fully there will be no place for ivory-tower dwellers, or for those who are experts in looking backwards and failures in looking ahead. There will, however, be plenty of room for that intelligence,

valty, courage, and initiative which the South in time of crisis has always shown abundantly. Surely there is a fighting chance for building a better world out of these fluid and unstable times. In the South the words *a fighting chance* have always been a challenge. It will become shortly much more than a fighting chance if our people can be made to realize that education is an essential investment and can be persuaded to provide funds necessary for an adequate educational program. But the time must not be delayed. The place to begin is in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The people to begin the movement are those who administer the high schools and colleges of this Association.

Spiritual Values in Higher Education*

BY B. HARVIE BRANSCOMB
Chancellor, Vanderbilt University

Your Chairman has assigned me the topic, "Spiritual Values in Higher Education." I suspect his thought to have been that at this stage of the proceedings nothing would do any good except evangelism. Perhaps he assumed that I would take one look at the audience, give it up, and choose my own subject. I shall, however, speak on the topic assigned.

Both the noun "values" and its modifying adjective are notoriously ambiguous, yet we know in general what the phrase means. It can be used in a broader or a more limited sense. Used broadly, it refers to all those experiences which properly belong to man as a spiritual being, experiences arising from his capacity for speculative thought, for imaginative and creative insight, for aesthetic discrimination and judgment, for that synthesis and refinement of personal attitudes which we call religion. These are the manifestations of man's spiritual existence. A more limited use of the phrase refers only to the more specifically religious experiences and attitudes, those which center around the development of a good will and a confident faith that the universe is good. There is, however, no need to choose between these two meanings for the purposes of this paper. The same issues must be met whether one deals with the phrase in its broader or more limited connotation. This is a fact often ignored. If the broader values of religion are to be excluded from the academic field, so, also, and inevitably, will the values and meaning of poetry, of art, and the whole realm of the imaginative and the undemonstrable. The issues which must be met are essentially two: does higher education have any obligation in connection with values, or only for the increase of factual or speculative knowledge; and secondly, how can values be understood and communicated, that is, how can they be taught?

Value is a difficult word and is not always used in exactly the same sense. I met, for example, the other day the following sentence: "Some values have more value than other values," which is the same as if we should say "Some donkeys are more donkeys than other donkeys." The statement undoubtedly suggests meaning and even perhaps illustration, but does use the word in two senses. The word "value" is, however, the only term we have to describe that judgment of preference or better-ness which enables a person to choose this rather than that. It has more value, we say, or a value of

* An address delivered before the Fifty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 13, 1946.

higher order. Values, thus, are judgments concerning the worth or goodness of a thing or an experience. They supply the ends which determine action. They are the guides when choices have to be made.

Has a college or university any concern with values? There are those who will assert that they do not. The university or four year college, they maintain, is neither a church nor a propaganda institution. It must remain completely uncommitted as to the choices to be made either by society or an individual, and no brief in advance can be held by the institution in favor of either alternative of such a choice. The task of the university college, it is urged, is to provide knowledge and a method of arriving at more knowledge. It can explain why we act as we do, but not what we should do. It can justifiably show the consequences of economic or social procedures, but its function stops short at that point. Whether these consequences are good or bad, to be accepted or rejected, is outside its legitimate task. It can review and organize the history of ethics or of the major religions of the world, but which of these systems its students adopt, or whether they adopt none, lies outside the area of the institution's responsibility. In other words, the university, it is claimed, should maintain the same objectivity and lack of commitment with reference to the values and choices men make as it maintains in seeking to discover the formula for a chemical reaction or the date of a newly unearthed inscription.

I had this point of view stated to me only a fortnight ago by a very intelligent woman. "The university" she said "should teach the students how to think, but not what to think." Her statement, it seems to me, sums up the issue. As a repudiation of dogmatism and an expression of faith in the limitless reaches of knowledge, the phrase can only have approval. As a sober and literal definition policy, however, I believe it to be a half-truth, precious but fundamentally unsound. The truth is in the first half, not the second. We are concerned about what students think. It would be a serious matter, for example, if students thought that twice seven made fifteen, that Julius Caesar lived in the tenth century, or what is more likely, that it was on Ameche who discovered the telephone. There is such a thing as truth, and we are concerned that students think what is true. What we actually mean by the expression quoted above is that since the human mind is always fallible even though self-opinionated, universities must not force student assent to proposals advanced, but rely upon the inherent worth of the reasoning involved to win acceptance.

As applied to thinking about ends and choices, which is to say, about values, the case is similar. There is a body of values which has grown out of man's long experience, and to repudiate these would be to sacrifice much of the best in our civilization. Granted that the independence and freedom of students must not be sacrificed—not at least until we discover the omniscient president or the infallible board of trustees—to deny any concern for

the aesthetic and moral values which have been slowly built up by society would be a betrayal of the best in our life. Can it be seriously maintained that educational institutions should be indifferent to what students think about freedom as compared with slavery, injustice, and cruelty as a means of political control, order and beauty as compared with sordidness and confusion, altruism in comparison with selfishness and egotism?

Civilization consists of and survives only through the presence of these intangible, fragile yet powerful realities known as moral values, not by means of its high-speed motors, concrete roads, or elaborate juke boxes. Shall the universities, which are the custodians of the great tradition of civilized life, deny this elemental fact? And if they do, to what agency can we commit the preservation of those judgments of relative worth which differentiate civilized from primitive societies. To the Church? Yes, in part always, but the church is dependent upon the school for the preservation of its own tradition and understanding. How often it has been demonstrated that without the support of strong and free educational institutions, the church herself slips easily into superstition and magic? Nor are we likely to say after the experiences of the last fifteen years that we can leave the values of our society to officials of state. Saul, the king of Israel, was not the only political leader on whose head the sacred oil of office failed to bestow prophetic gifts.

The universities, I am claiming, have a responsibility for maintaining not only the tradition of scientific and scholarly methods, but, also for preserving and furthering the value judgments, or ideals, which ultimately determine the course of men's action. I do not need to remind this audience that the universities of the past have recognized this obligation. In Plato's time the discussions of the Academy centered in the concept of good. Under the scholastics, theology was the queen of the curriculum, perhaps at times a little arbitrary or capricious, but such is the nature of queens. The English universities have always been concerned for the moral as well as the intellectual standards of Britain. The German universities have—ever since the time of Fichte—felt a large measure of responsibility for the nation's purposes and spirit. American universities, on the other hand, have in recent years at least displayed considerable embarrassment over any marked interests either in national ideals or in moral principles. In so doing they have failed to serve our society at its points of greatest need. The reason for this reluctance undoubtedly has been the fear that they would find themselves substituting a new dogmatism for old ones, and engaging in indoctrination instead of education.

This brings me to the second issue which has been mentioned, how values are communicated. Does a real concern for such values as justice, freedom, loyalty, beauty, and brotherhood call for any sacrifice of the scholar's honesty or the student's intellectual freedom? A good many people seem to

nk that such things can only be taught by some system of moral forced
ding, much as one would teach a parrot to talk.

None of us knows as much as we would like about the alchemy of personal-

. The growth of the soul is subtle and complex, and easy formulas will
en fail to work. But one thing seems clear. Personal values, unlike the
ths of logic, are inculcated neither by assertion nor by argument.

The simplest illustration is the best. Many colleges have courses in the
preciation of the fine arts. There are two easy mistakes which could be
ide in connection with such courses. One would be to talk about architec-
re, painting, or music, arguing as to the superiority of classical examples
er others. We all know better than that. Instead we use our Carnegie
s and show reproductions of the great pictures, photographs of the fa-
us structures, or we enable students to hear the music. The other mis-
e which has sometimes been made—to confine the illustration to paint-
—has been to collect certain pictures which students were to be made to
ppreciate" whether they liked them or not, a sort of shot-gun wedding of
arts. Such courses are usually ineffective. The better method seems to
that of showing to the student a selected series of reproductions, indicating
each case what the artist was endeavoring to accomplish, the limitations
his technique and period, and the results which he achieved. The student
rns and can even be examined on the factual data involved. But as he
s through the year, looking at and studying one picture after another,
othing else happens besides the acquisition of historical information.
comes unconsciously to see to some extent what the artist saw and por-
yed. Harmony of coloring, the expression of meaning by emphasis or
n exaggeration, the artist's eye for significant detail, unity of composition
e to be recognized and appreciated. The individual's scale of aesthetic
es changes. He will not again decorate his walls with art calendars, or
ap prints, though occasionally a Petty girl may flit in and out. Some-
g has happened to him that the instructor did not do and cannot ex-
n. He has met order, beauty, and meaning in certain of its forms, and
r have laid hold upon him.

his is the way that all values must be found and learned. They cannot
forced, and they do not come by the repetition of platitudes. In one
e they cannot be taught at all. They come almost in the nature of a
ilation. We do not teach them. They lay hold upon us and upon our
ents. But those who have the tools and the skills to make to live again
struggles of mankind can bring students in contact with the issues and
judgments of those who have been responsible for the better choices
h have made our world. We cannot teach students to prefer freedom to
ort, but we can enable them to know what freedom meant to John
on, to Tom Paine, and to Wendell Willkie. We cannot indoctrinate
n with a love of justice, but we can trace with them the long, slow, but

impressive progress of the concept of justice in the English speaking tradition. We cannot give them a sense of security in the midst of an unpredictable environment, but we can enable them to perceive how some men have found a deeper security in love of their fellows, and others have seen even in tragedy convincing signs of the working of a good and creative power.

A concern for values and for students' apprehension of them thus does not necessitate dogmatism, intolerance, or loss of freedom. It does, however, call for selectivity in presentation. Not all of the past is of equal importance or worth. It is the function of colleges and universities to select the best of our inheritance for that preservation which comes from social recollection and transmission to the adults and leaders of tomorrow.

What concretely does all this mean? Leaving out of the picture aesthetic values—since no serious problem exists in this quarter—I would say it involves two specific undertakings. The first is the responsibility which rests upon educational institutions to interpret to students the ideals and aims which have been the creative forces in our western and national cultures. The stream of a culture has a specific meaning or rather many meanings; and it is our obligation to make these meanings known and vital to succeeding generations of students. This is our spiritual inheritance; the duty of transmitting it is elemental. Yet at this point the colleges for the most part have failed signally. Instead of interpreting to students the major values and meanings toward which our culture has been directed, we have under the pressure of departmental interests and in the face of the intellectual difficulties of the task split up the field of knowledge and offered to students various combinations of fragments, leaving them without any strong sense of cultural meaning or destiny. True, we have had courses in European and American history, but the aims of these have often been vague and omnivorous. Archibald MacLeish once wrote a poem called "America Without Promises," but modern students too often do not sense what those promises were, and cannot be blamed if they are unable to project them into the future. The situation is of more than academic interest. Today the American goals and concepts are threatened, not by military or physical forces, but by a denial of their worth. In the modern ideological war we cannot survive unless as a nation we know and understand the ultimate values for which we have striven. Happily the tide seems to have turned, and we read of courses on the "great books" on "contemporary civilization" and on "the western tradition." To this discussion I would only add the footnote that the goal of such courses should be an apprehension of the values, which is to say, the basic preferences and the aims which that history has reflected.

There is a second responsibility. The mood of the times basically is one of pessimism. This is more marked in Europe than in America, but apparent here as well. The theological movement reflects clearly what is happening. European theology for twenty-five years has moved steadily away from the

optimistic liberalism of the early years of the century. This same mood is now seen invading the political sphere, and we are questioning whether men can be trusted with self-determination and the powers of decision. Perhaps this is temporary—the effect first of one, then of two world wars. Certainly the humanistic optimism of two decades ago was immature and excessive. Yet one thing is clear. Confidence in the goodness of the total process of living is of all forces the most liberating and stimulating. Faith in man and his possibilities does not exist strongly, nor survive long without faith in nature—for man is inseparably a part of nature. There are those who say that such faith is undemonstrable—an act of trust. This is true, but such faith in life has been the possession of most of the creative minds of history. It is probably the most valuable element in our social inheritance. We owe it to our students to enable them to see and know the form which this faith assumed in the minds of the great religious leaders and teachers and the grounds which made them so confident of it.

In a recent essay by Howard Munford Jones concerning those studies and disciplines called the Humanities, the following passage occurs: "Scholarship is an act of social faith, rather than an act of individual doubt. In that happy affirmation only it can hope to play, in conjunction with science and the social sciences, its proper part in the life of modern men, who are haunted by fear, racked by scepticism, and tormented by their loss of inward belief." Humanistic scholarship in our day has not been marked by the mood of happy affirmation." Yet this has been the spirit of our inheritance, and they interpret it ill who do not share its faith.

The issue is a simple one: Are the colleges and universities merely exponents of a method, that is, essentially technological schools, or are they the bearers, critics, and defenders of the broad range of insights and values which essentially constitute civilization?

Report of the Secretary-Treasurer for the Year 1946*

AUDIT REPORT ON SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AS OF JUNE 15, 1946

GRANNIS-BLAIR AUDIT COMPANY
ACCOUNTANTS AND AUDITORS
1004-6 STAHLMAN BUILDING
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

July 12, 1946

Dr. W. R. Smithey, President,
University of Virginia,
Charlottesville, Virginia.

Dear Sir:

We have made an audit and examination of the accounts of Dr. J. R. Robinson, Secretary-Treasurer of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, for the period from March 1, 1946 to June 15, 1946. During the course of our audit we examined and tested accounting records and supporting evidence, and obtained information and explanations from the Secretary-Treasurer and from his office staff.

We examined in detail the cash transactions of the Association, and we confirmed by obtaining certificates from depositories, the cash balances at June 15, 1946. We inspected the investment securities and same were found in order as set out on Exhibit C.

We have carefully reviewed the accounting methods employed by the Secretary-Treasurer during the period. In our opinion, based upon such examination, the accompanying statements of income and expenditures and cash balances fairly present, in accordance with accepted principles of accounting consistently maintained by the Secretary-Treasurer during the period, the financial position of the Association at June 15, 1946.

Respectfully submitted,

GRANNIS-BLAIR AUDIT COMPANY
By J. A. GRANNIS

*Carried forward from the February QUARTERLY (1947), page 102.

EXHIBIT A

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

SUMMARY OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURES BY FUNDS

AS OF JUNE 15, 1946

FUND	BALANCE 3-1-1946	INCOME	EXPENDI- TURES	BALANCE 6-15-1946
General Fund (A-1)	\$ 7,960.74	\$20,435.00	\$11,693.48	\$16,702.26
Commission on Curricular Problems and Research (A-2)	2,291.18		300.25	1,990.93
Committee on Approval of Negro Schools (A-2)	4,991.70		696.74	4,294.96
Work Conference (A-3)	5,461.17	121.00	1,174.14	4,408.03
Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools (A-4)	1,477.39			1,477.39
Graduate Negro Education (A-4)	500.00		500.00	
Library Committee (A-4)	318.94	2,900.00	1,250.75	1,968.19
Southern Study (A-5)	4,823.22	250.32	655.29	4,418.25
Totals	<u>\$27,824.34</u>	<u>\$23,706.32</u>	<u>\$16,270.65</u>	<u>\$35,260.01</u>

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES

FOR PERIOD MARCH 1, 1946 TO JUNE 15, 1946

GENERAL FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit \$ 7,960.74

INCOME

Annual Dues

Universities and Senior Colleges	86 @ \$65.00	\$ 5,590.00	
Junior Colleges	36 @ \$40.00	1,440.00	
Secondary Schools	1306 @ \$10.00	13,060.00	\$20,090.00

Other Income

Interest on Investments	\$ 45.00	
Inspection Fees	300.00	345.00

Total Receipts 20,435.00

Total to Be Accounted for \$28,395.74

Expenditures

Commission on Institutions of Higher Education (A-1a)	\$ 1,218.41
Commission on Secondary Schools (A-1a)	8,429.15
Office of Secretary-Treasurer	201.50
Office of President	74.00
The QUARTERLY	932.80
Library Committee	41.50
Dues-American Council on Education	100.00
Contingent Fund	207.37
Expenses of Meeting	488.75

Total Expenditures

\$11,693.48

Balance on June 15, 1946

\$16,702.26

ANALYSIS OF EXPENDITURES

FOR PERIOD MARCH 1, 1946 TO JUNE 15, 1946

COMMISSION ON INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Salary-Executive Secretary	\$ 1,000.00
Supplies	76.62
Secretarial Help	10.00
Office Rent	50.00
Committee on Junior Colleges	2.50
Travel	74.19
Contingent	5.10

Total

\$ 1,218.41

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Secretarial Hire	\$ 65.00
Inspection of Secondary Schools	8,000.00
Refunds	20.00
Stamps	15.00
Telegrams and Telephone	9.11
Express	3.57
Certification of Schools	73.43
Convention Expense	203.83
Contingent Fund	39.21

Total

\$ 8,429.15

COMMISSION ON CURRICULAR PROBLEMS AND RESEARCH FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit \$ 2,291.18

EXPENDITURES

Travel and Expense-Executive Committee 300.25

Balance on June 15, 1946 \$ 1,990.93

COMMITTEE ON APPROVAL NEGRO SCHOOL FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit \$ 4,991.70

EXPENDITURES

Dundry Expenditures 696.74

Balance on June 15, 1946 \$ 4,294.96

WORK CONFERENCE FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit \$ 5,461.17

INCOME

Sale of Phamphlets, etc. 121.00

Total to be accounted for \$ 5,582.17

EXPENDITURES

A. Expenses for Committee on Work Conferences:

I. Travel \$ 58.07

B. Expenses for the Executive Secretary:

I. Secretarial Assistance	\$ 137.80	
II. Stipend for Executive Secretary	150.00	
III. Office Supplies, Postage, etc.	82.50	
IV. Travel and Contingent	138.87	509.17

C. Work Conferences:

I. Contingent 606.90

Total Expenditures \$ 1,174.14

Balance on June 15, 1946 \$ 4,408.03

CONFERENCE OF DEANS OF SOUTHERN GRADUATE SCHOOLS FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit	\$ 1,477.39
No Transactions	

Balance on June 15, 1946	\$ 1,477.39
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GRADUATE NEGRO EDUCATION FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit	\$ 500.00
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EXPENDITURES

Refunded to General Education Board	500.00
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Balance on June 15, 1946	
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LIBRARY COMMITTEE FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit	\$ 318.94
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INCOME

General Education Board	2,900.00
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Total to be accounted for	\$ 3,218.94
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EXPENDITURES

Sundry Items	1,250.75
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Balance on June 15, 1946	\$ 1,968.19
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SOUTHERN STUDY FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit	\$ 4,823.22
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INCOME

Sale of Books	250.32
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Total to be accounted for	\$ 5,073.54
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EXPENDITURES

VI. Salaries of Staff	655.29
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Balance on June 15, 1946	\$ 4,418.25
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STAFF ASSISTANCE FOR NEGROES FUND

Balance on March 1, 1946 per Audit	None
No transactions	

Balance on June 15, 1946	None
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EXHIBIT B

SUMMARY OF BANK BALANCES BY FUNDS

AS OF JUNE 15, 1946

General Fund:

Peoples Bank and Trust Company, Rock Hill, S. C.	\$ 4,800.00
Commerce Union Bank, Nashville, Tenn.	<u>11,902.26</u>

Total (B-1)	\$16,702.26
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Commission on Curricular Problems and Research Fund:

American National Bank-Hillsboro Branch (B-1)	1,990.93
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Committee on Approval Negro Schools Fund:

American National Bank-Hillsboro Branch (B-1)	4,294.96
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Work Conference Fund:

Third National Bank, Nashville (B-2)	4,408.03
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Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools Fund:

Nashville Trust Company (B-2)	1,477.39
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Library Committee Fund:

Nashville Trust Company (B-2)	1,968.19
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Southern Study Fund:

Broadway National Bank, Nashville (B-3)	<u>4,418.25</u>
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Total Cash in Banks June 15, 1946	<u><u>\$35,260.01</u></u>
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RECONCILEMENT OF CASH BALANCES

AS OF JUNE 15, 1946

GENERAL FUND

PEOPLES BANK AND TRUST COMPANY-ROCK HILL, S. C.

Balance per Bank Statement June 15, 1946	\$ 4,800.00
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COMMERCE UNION BANK NASHVILLE

Balance per Bank Statement June 15, 1946	\$11,912.26
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Outstanding Check:

No.	382	10.00	<u>11,902.26</u>
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TOTAL GENERAL FUND CASH	<u><u>\$16,702.26</u></u>
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COMMISSION ON CURRICULAR PROBLEMS AND RESEARCH
AND
COMMITTEE ON APPROVAL OF NEGRO SCHOOLS

AMERICAN NATIONAL BANK-HILLSBORO BRANCH

Balance per Bank Statement June 15, 1946	\$ 6,285.89
No outstanding checks	
TOTAL CASH ABOVE FUNDS	<u>\$ 6,285.89</u>

ALLOCATION OF BALANCE

Commission on Curricular Problems and Research (A-2)	\$ 1,990.93
Committee on Approval of Negro Schools (A-2)	<u>4,294.96</u>
Total as above	<u>\$ 6,285.89</u>

WORK CONFERENCE FUND

THIRD NATIONAL BANK-NASHVILLE

Balance per Bank Statement June 15, 1946	\$ 4,408.03
No outstanding checks	
TOTAL WORK CONFERENCE FUND CASH	<u>\$ 4,408.03</u>

CONFERENCE OF DEANS OF SOUTHERN GRADUATE
SCHOOLS, AND GRADUATE
NEGRO EDUCATION AND LIBRARY COMMITTEES

NASHVILLE TRUST COMPANY

Balance per Bank Statement June 15, 1946	\$ 3,509.18
Less-Outstanding Checks:	
No. 50	<u>63.60</u>
TOTAL CASH ABOVE FUNDS	<u>\$ 3,445.58</u>

ALLOCATION OF BALANCE

Conference on Deans of Southern Graduate Schools (A-4)	\$ 1,477.39
Library Committee Fund (A-4)	<u>1,968.19</u>
Total as above	<u>\$ 3,445.58</u>

SOUTHERN STUDY FUND
AND
STAFF ASSISTANCE FOR NEGROES FUND

BROADWAY NATIONAL BANK-NASHVILLE

Balance per Bank Statement June 15, 1946	\$ 4,418.25
Outstanding checks	
TOTAL CASH ABOVE FUNDS	<u>\$ 4,418.25</u>

ALLOCATION OF BALANCE

Southern Study Fund (A-5)	\$ 4,418.25
Staff Assistance for Negroes (A-5)	
Total as above	<u>\$ 4,418.25</u>

EXHIBIT C

ANALYSIS OF INVESTMENTS
AS OF JUNE 15, 1946

DESCRIPTION		NUMBER	AMOUNT
U. S. TREASURY BONDS 1951-55			
Redeemable after 9-15-1931	85518 J	\$ 1,000.00	
Redeemable after 9-15-1951	85519 K	1,000.00	
	85522 B	1,000.00	
Total			<u>\$ 3,000.00</u>
U. S. TREASURY BONDS 1946-49			
Redeemable after 6-15-1931	20099 K	5,000.00	
Redeemable after 6-15-1946			
Total Investments			<u>\$ 8,000.00</u>

AUDIT REPORT ON
SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY
SCHOOLS AS OF NOVEMBER 30, 1946

GRANNIS-BLAIR AUDIT COMPANY
ACCOUNTANTS AND AUDITORS
1004-6 STAHLMAN BUILDING
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

December 4, 1946

Dr. William R. Smithey, President,
Southern Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools,
University of Virginia,
Charlottesville, Virginia.

Dear Sir:

Pursuant to engagement we have made an audit and examination of the accounts of Dr. Albert J. Geiger, Secretary-Treasurer of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, for the period from June 15, 1946 to November 30, 1946.

During the course of our audit we examined and tested accounting records and supporting evidence, and obtained information and explanations from both the office of the present Secretary-Treasurer and from the office staff of the preceding Secretary-Treasurer, Dr. Robinson.

We examined in detail the cash transactions of the Association, and we confirmed the cash balances at November 30, 1946 from statements of depository banks. We did not inspect the investment securities set out on Exhibit C, but were informed that the bonds listed were forwarded by Mrs. Robinson to Dr. Geiger and same were duly received by your Secretary-Treasurer and deposited for safekeeping with the Union Trust Company at St. Petersburg, Florida.

We have carefully reviewed the accounting methods employed by the Secretary-Treasurer during the period. In our opinion, based upon such examination, the accompanying statements of income and expenditures and cash balances fairly present, in accordance with accepted principles of accounting consistently maintained by the Secretary-Treasurer during the period, the financial position of the Association at November 30, 1946.

Respectfully submitted,

GRANNIS AND ASSOCIATES
By J. A. Grannis

EXHIBIT A

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

SUMMARY OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURES BY FUNDS
AS OF NOVEMBER 30, 1946

FUND		BALANCE 6-15-1946	INCOME	EXPENDI- TURES	BALANCE 11-30-1946
General Fund	(A-1)	\$16,702.26	\$ 6,045.00	\$12,676.10	\$10,071.16
Commission on Curricular Problems and Research	(A-2)	1,990.93		1,065.54	925.39
Committee on Approval Negro Schools	(A-2)	4,294.96	500.00	407.47	4,387.49
Work Conference	(A-3)	4,408.03	845.00	3,252.72	2,000.31
Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools	(A-4)	1,477.39		872.70	604.69
Advisory Committee	(A-4)	1,968.19		2,406.74	(438.55)
Northern Study	(A-4)	4,418.25			4,418.25
Totals		<u>\$35,260.01</u>	<u>\$ 7,390.00</u>	<u>\$20,681.27</u>	<u>\$21,968.74</u>

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES
FOR PERIOD JUNE 15, 1946 TO NOVEMBER 30, 1946

GENERAL FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit \$16,702.26

INCOME

Tuition Dues

Universities and Senior

Colleges	59 @ \$65.00	\$ 3,835.00	
for Colleges	26 @ \$40.00	1,040.00	
Secondary Schools	2 @ \$10.00	20.00	\$ 4,895.00

Income

Registration Fees	1,150.00
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Total Receipts

6,045.00

Total to Be Accounted for

\$22,747.26

EXPENDITURES

Commission on Institutions of Higher Education (A-1a)	\$ 6,398.46	
Commission on Secondary Schools (A-1a)	403.26	
Office of Secretary-Treasurer	526.11	
Office of President	54.34	
The Quarterly	3,326.23	
Contingent Fund	635.47	
Expense of Meeting	332.23	
Transfer of Funds to Commission on Work Conference	500.00	
Transfer of Funds to Commission on Approval of Negro Schools	500.00	
		<hr/>
Total Expenditures		\$12,676.
Balance on November 30, 1946		<hr/> \$10,071. <hr/>

ANALYSIS OF EXPENDITURES

FOR PERIOD JUNE 15, 1946 TO NOVEMBER 30, 1946

COMMISSION ON INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Salary-Executive Secretary	\$ 3,500.00	
Supplies	207.23	
Report Forms and Other Printing	119.29	
Office Rent	350.00	
Travel	437.02	
Special Studies	1,099.95	
Revision of Library Check List	684.97	
		<hr/>
Total		\$ 6,398.3

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Secretarial Hire	\$ 223.00	
Printing Annual Reports	75.00	
Stamps	10.00	
Telegrams and Telephone	6.59	
Express	13.84	
Stationery for Secretary	35.08	
Standing Committee on Standards	39.75	
		<hr/>
Total		\$ 403.3

COMMISSION ON CURRICULAR PROBLEMS AND RESEARCH FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit \$ 1,990.93

EXPENDITURES

Office Expense	\$	133.50
Secretarial Help		250.00
Salary of Coördinating Agent		250.00
Travel and Expense-Executive Committee		432.04

Total Expenditures		1,065.54
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Balance on November 30, 1946		\$ 925.39
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COMMITTEE ON APPROVAL NEGRO SCHOOL FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit \$ 4,294.96

INCOME

Transferred from General Fund		500.00
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Total		\$ 4,794.96
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EXPENDITURES

Ordinary Expenditures		407.47
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Balance on November 30, 1946		\$ 4,387.49
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WORK CONFERENCE FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit \$ 4,408.03

INCOME

Transferred from Conference of Deans	\$	250.00
Transferred from General Fund		500.00
Cost of Pamphlets, etc.,		95.00

Total to be accounted for		\$ 5,253.03
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EXPENDITURES

Expenses for Committee on Work Conferences:

I. Travel	\$	71.05
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B. Expenses for the Executive Secretary:

I. Secretarial Assistance	\$	215.00	
II. Stipend for Executive Secretary		150.00	
III. Office Supplies, Postage, etc.,		31.00	
IV. Travel and Contingent		45.77	441.77

C. Expenses for Work Conference:

I. Administrative	\$	900.00	
II. Consultants		168.50	
III. Travel for Conference Committees		43.80	
IV. Living Expenses for Committees		388.75	
V. Carriage and Supplies		215.01	
VI. Contingent		1,023.84	2,739.90

Total Expenditures

3,252.75

Balance on November 30, 1946

\$ 2,000.38

CONFERENCE OF DEANS OF SOUTHERN GRADUATE
SCHOOLS FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit

\$ 1,477.39

EXPENDITURES

Transfer of Funds to Committee on

Work Conference

\$ 250.00

Sundry Items

622.70

872.70

Balance on November 30, 1946

\$ 604.69

LIBRARY COMMITTEE FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit

\$ 1,968.19

EXPENDITURES

Sundry Items

2,406.74

Fund Overdrawn on November 30, 1946

(\$438.55)

SOUTHERN STUDY FUND

Balance on June 15, 1946 per Audit

\$ 4,418.25

No Transactions

Balance on November 30, 1946

\$ 4,418.25

EXHIBIT B

SUMMARY OF BANK BALANCE BY FUNDS

AS OF NOVEMBER 30, 1946

General Fund:

Peoples Bank and Trust Company, Rock Hill, S. C.	\$ 4,800.00	
Commerce Union Bank, Nashville, Tenn.	5,271.16	
Total (B-1)		\$10,071.16

Commission on Curricular Problems and Research Fund:

American National Bank-Hillsboro Branch (B-1)	925.39	
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Committee on Approval Negro Schools Fund:

American National Bank-Hillsboro Branch (B-1)	4,387.49	
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Work Conference Fund:

Third National Bank, Nashville, Tenn. (B-2)	2,000.31	
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Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools Fund:

Nashville Trust Company (B-2)	604.69	
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Library Committee Fund:

Nashville Trust Company (B-2)	(438.55)	
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Southern Study Fund:

Broadway National Bank, Nashville, Tenn. (B-3)	4,418.25	
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Total Cash in Banks on November 30, 1946		<u>\$21,968.74</u>
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RECONCILEMENT OF CASH BALANCES

AS OF NOVEMBER 30, 1946

GENERAL FUND

PEOPLES BANK AND TRUST COMPANY-ROCK HILL, S. C.

Balance per Bank Statement November 30, 1946	\$ 4,800.00	
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COMMERCE UNION BANK-NASHVILLE

Balance per Bank Statement November 30, 1946	\$ 6,690.84	
Added-Deposits in Transit	170.00	

\$ 6,860.84

Less—Outstanding Checks:

No.	382	\$10.00	No.	529	\$	153.68	
	514	42.00		530		85.86	
	520	149.28		531		12.00	
	521	25.00		532		2.45	
	522	129.75		533		19.42	
	523	20.18		534		25.00	
	524	15.03		535		87.66	
	525	424.70		536		73.18	
	526	75.30		537		50.00	
	527	50.00		538		100.00	
	528	35.30		539		3.89	
						1,589.68	5,271.16

TOTAL GENERAL FUND CASH

\$10,071.16

COMMISSION ON CURRICULAR PROBLEMS AND
RESEARCH AND COMMITTEE
ON APPROVAL OF NEGRO SCHOOLS

AMERICAN NATIONAL BANK-HILLSBORO BRANCH

Balance per Bank Statement November 30, 1946	\$ 5,312.88
No Outstanding Checks	

TOTAL CASH ABOVE FUNDS	\$ 5,312.88
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ALLOCATION OF BALANCE

Commission on Curricular Problems and Research (A-2)	\$ 925.39
Committee on Approval of Negro Schools (A-2)	4,387.49

Total As Above	\$ 5,312.88
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WORK CONFERENCE FUND

THIRD NATIONAL BANK-NASHVILLE

Balance per Bank Statement November 30, 1946	\$ 2,075.31
Less—Outstanding Check:	No. 146 75.00

TOTAL WORK CONFERENCE FUND CASH	\$ 2,000.31
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CONFERENCE OF DEANS OF SOUTHERN GRADUATE
SCHOOLS AND GRADUATE
NEGRO EDUCATION AND LIBRARY COMMITTEE

NASHVILLE TRUST COMPANY

Balance per Bank Statement November 30, 1946	\$ 166.14
No Outstanding Checks	

TOTAL CASH ABOVE FUNDS	\$ 166.14
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ALLOCATION OF BALANCE

Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools (A-4)	\$ 604.69
Library Committee Fund (A-4)	(438.55)

Total As Above	\$ 166.14
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SOUTHERN STUDY FUND

BROADWAY NATIONAL BANK-NASHVILLE

Balance per Bank Statement November 30, 1946 \$ 4,418.25
 No Outstanding Checks

TOTAL SOUTHERN STUDY FUND CASH \$ 4,418.25

EXHIBIT C

ANALYSIS OF INVESTMENTS
 AS OF NOVEMBER 30, 1946

DESCRIPTION		NUMBER	AMOUNT
7% U. S. TREASURY BONDS 1951-55			
Issued	9-15-1931	85518 J	\$ 1,000.00
Redeemable after	9-15-1951	85519 K	1,000.00
		85522 B	1,000.00
Total			<u>\$ 3,000.00</u>
1 7/8% U. S. TREASURY BONDS 1946-49			
Issued	6-15-1931	20099 K	5,000.00
Redeemable after	6-15-1946		
Total Investments			<u>\$ 8,000.00</u>

The Southern Association and the Elementary School*

BY R. LEE THOMAS

Director, Division of Elementary Schools, Tennessee State Department of Education

The officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools have accorded me the honor, the privilege, and the responsibility of appearing on your program as a representative of the elementary school. I appreciate the significance of this opportunity. The Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges has been a powerful factor in establishing and upgrading high schools and institutions of higher learning. The professional zeal, cooperatively and diligently applied in the impartial application of standards and in steadfastly crusading towards its goals, has brought the Association to a position of influence and prestige that is dominant in the area it serves.

An educational program is successful only to the extent that it contributes to improved citizenship and better individual and community life. Education is a continuous process and can be no stronger than its weakest link. Public education at all levels is in the midst of a crisis. It is generally recognized that conditions are and have long been most acute in the elementary school. According to the 1940 Federal census approximately one person in four among the adult population in states served by the Southern Association had less than fifth grade education. Cooperation at all educational levels is imperative or the South will remain the "Nation's Economic Problem Number One." It is heartening to note the increased concern which the Association is taking in the elementary grades.

In inviting me to be with you, your Chairman said, "We are very anxious to have you bring before the members of the Commission on Secondary Schools the desirability and importance of emphasizing the elementary schools and the improvement of the elementary schools. The charge is often made that we are too frequently maintaining the high school at the expense of the elementary grades."

The topic assigned to me is "The Southern Association and the Elementary School." Finding no factual data on this subject, I attempted to get from representative school people in states in the Southern Association territory opinions concerning past, present, and future relationships between the Southern Association and the elementary school.

A set of questions was prepared to get this information. An attempt was made to phrase the questions in such a way that the one filling in the re-

* An address delivered before the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, Tennessee, December 10, 1942.

sponses would not be led to give an answer in which he did not believe. State Directors of Secondary and Elementary Education in states having schools in the Southern Association were asked to answer the questions and each to be responsible for getting responses from four additional persons. Questionnaires were sent to members of steering committees of the Elementary Education Project of the Southern States Work-Conference and the state secondary and elementary principals who are representatives of their respective organizations in the National Education Association.

Approximately one hundred and fifty questionnaires were sent out. Eighty-four were returned. Responses from states varied from four to thirteen. Questions not clearly answered were not recorded. Responses were classified and tabulated according to position as follows: Elementary, 22; College, 11; High School, 9; State Department of Education, 24; and Superintendents, 18.

In a local school unit has pressure from the Southern Association on member high schools been such that an undue portion of energy, interest, and funds were devoted to the accredited school and resulted in a sacrifice for elementary schools in: (1) salaries; (2) instructional materials; (3) capital outlay; and (4) best qualified teachers?

Phase		Elem.	College	High School	Supt.	State Dept.	Total
Teachers' Salaries							
	Yes	11	9	0	6	12	38
	No	10	1	9	12	12	44
Instructional Materials							
	Yes	13	9	2	6	17	47
	No	6	0	7	12	7	32
Capital Outlay							
	Yes	13	9	1	5	14	42
	No	6	0	8	13	7	34
Best Qualified Teachers							
	Yes	13	10	2	6	14	45
	No	6	1	6	12	10	35

It is significant that opinion is sharply divided. However, except on salaries, a majority report pressure from the Southern Association on member high schools has deprived elementary schools for instructional supplies, capital outlay, and best qualified teachers. A state university professor said, "Southern Association requirements definitely draw teachers out of elementary grades in these times of teacher shortage." An elementary principal in another state said, "I am delighted to see that the Southern

Association is taking an interest in elementary education. I have been wishing for this for years. I wish that the Association would set up standards for elementary schools. Whether required to meet the standards or not, elementary school leaders could get communities interested in trying to meet the goals set up." While an elementary school teacher reasoned, "I have tried to get some material on this—hence the delay in answering. The only thing that I am rather certain of is that the purpose of the Southern Association in having standards *was* likely good, but since my county has been forced to remove college graduates from elementary to high school to maintain standards, I think educational philosophy is at fault and standards are serving no good purpose."

Has the Program of Elementary Education been hampered because elementary schools are not included in the Southern Association program?

Responses from	Yes	No
Elementary	18	4
College	7	3
High School	2	7
Superintendents	5	13
State Departments of Education	16	8
Total	48	35

The responses indicated a decided opinion that the program of elementary education has been hampered because elementary schools are not included in the Southern Association program. It should be noted that the high school and the superintendent groups are not aware of this handicap. A high school principal expressed his opinion as follows: "Custom, only, makes elementary schools weak. Elementary schools have usually drawn the less adequately trained teachers."

The following were among the statements given to justify affirmative answers:

Superintendents and high school principals have been so anxious to meet Southern Association standards that they have thought anything would get by in the elementary schools.

I am not sure that I would wish the elementary schools to be included in the Southern Association program. Elementary education has been hampered because high schools were encouraged to develop at the expense of elementary schools.

Insistence upon conformity to standards in one division of school, when similar standards are not applied to the other division, creates impressions of differences in the importance of the two sections.

The most desirable way to think of education is a continual growth. There has been no integrated planning for all the school years.

I think the Southern Association has exerted a wholesome influence in the secondary field. The fact that the Association has not worked to build up elementary education has, in my opinion, added weight to the heresy that secondary education is the important phase of education. All are important and the Association should show that it recognizes this fact.

Has the Southern Association been a stimulating influence in the development of a set of standards for elementary schools?

Responses from	Yes	No
Elementary	8	14
College	3	7
High School	3	6
Superintendents	6	12
State Departments of Education	12	10
Total	32	49

The above data show that majority opinion at all educational levels, except state departments, is that the Southern Association has not been a stimulating influence in the development of a set of standards for elementary schools.

Some of the explanations given of affirmative answers were:

Difficult to answer. Some leaders in elementary education have been stimulated to develop standards but the fact that no "status" has been established has hampered the development of such standards.

Indirectly. I can't say that the type of pressure or influence has always been good. The standards of the Association do not encourage the adjusting of the program to meet individual differences.

The recent recommendation that high schools be approved only if supporting elementary schools met standards, has given impetus to the development of standards for elementary schools.

Schools on the Southern Association usually also have high standards for the elementary grades.

Being "tops" in high school has caused elementary teachers to want to know our elementary schools are in the same bracket.

Because the tendency is for parents and boards, as well as superintendents, to get eas from the secondary standards and carry them "down."

Higher standards for the high school naturally call for better prepared students on the elementary schools.

In order to become a pressure group similar to the High School group and thus "force" the expenditure of money on elementary school.

This is hard to answer. On the whole, I am ready to believe that the influence of the Southern Association has in the long run benefited all education, but I think it is time for the Southern Association to put emphasis on the improvement of elementary schools and to relate this to high school accrediting by setting up standards of the evaluative criteria kind for feeder schools.

Has the Southern Association been a negative influence in the development of a set of standards for elementary schools?

Responses from	Yes	No
Elementary	9	8
College	5	3
High School	3	6
Superintendents	3	16
State Departments of Education	5	16
Total	25	49

The tabulation of responses to the above question shows that the prevailing opinion is that the Southern Association has not been a negative influence in the development of standards for elementary schools; however, a majority of the elementary group holds a different opinion.

The following is a sampling of explanatory comments on the above question:

It's difficult to explain a negative influence. The Association has been no influence whatever as far as the elementary school is concerned.

Neglectful and unsympathetic rather than negative.

No inquiries—no suggestions—no interest—entirely disregarded.

Pre-occupation with high schools; emphasis upon "getting ready for high school subjects"; diversion of highly trained teachers to high school; and absence of any unit within Southern Association organization devoted to elementary schools.

The influence has been negative to the extent that it allows no long-range standards because the Southern Association causes teachers to be grabbed off in emergencies. Then, too, it has somehow conveyed the idea that standards exist as an admission to something—either college or high school—rather than to raise the quality of education.

Is the philosophy of elementary education, as accepted in your state, in accord with the philosophy of the Commission on Secondary Schools as reflected in the standards?

Responses from	Yes	No
Elementary	5	7
College	2	6
High School	8	0
Superintendent	12	2
State Departments of Education	12	4
Total	39	19

The above data show that most of the persons returning questionnaires think the accepted philosophy of elementary education is in accord with the philosophy of the Southern Association. The high school group is entirely in accord on this point; however, a majority of the college and elementary groups do not concur in this opinion.

It should be pointed out that only fifty-nine definite responses were made to this question. A number expressed uncertainty in their responses, while others were quite definite in their opinions.

Some of the chief points of difference in philosophies reported were:

If the standards are interpreted broadly as desirable goals of education, the answer is "yes." If the standards are interpreted literally as quantitative standards, and applied rigidly, the answer is "no."

I believe the answer is "Yes." I do not think some people would answer this way.

I am not thoroughly familiar with the standards but am under the impression that emphasis in Southern Association has been placed on:

(1) Inspection from above rather than an effective form of self-evaluation and self-direction.

(2) Same requirements for all regardless of student and community needs.

(3) Emphasis on material equipment rather than functional use of materials and equipment.

(4) Emphasis on external things such as teacher qualifications, teacher load, teacher salaries, equipment, length of term, etc., to the neglect of things which really make a good school as effective understanding and guidance of pupils, providing for individual differences in pupils, meeting community needs, democratic relationships, effective utilization of a variety of instructional materials, and coöperative group work on the part of the staff.

(5) Emphasis on idea that high school is chiefly preparation for college—applying same idea to elementary school, the elementary schools should be preparation for high school. This is contrary to the philosophy of elementary education expressed in our state bulletins and accepted by many of our educational leaders and teachers—that education at any level should do what is best for the child at the time; should be in line with the maturity level of the child; should be suited to his background and needs.

Our state feels that the whole school center should be accredited and not one division.

The High Schools are pressed to meet the Southern Association standards, since there is just so much money appropriated for teacher salaries and equipment. Children may be inspired to want to stay in school. Let's begin to build a *total public school program*. The colleges will benefit. Society will benefit. Our nation will benefit. The individual will benefit.

Please understand I think the college accrediting agency, the Southern Association, is doing a needed service in accrediting high schools, but they stop at high school where aid should be given to elementary schools.

The elementary school is more concerned about the total growth and development of children. The high school is more concerned about scholastic achievement.

Your question presupposes a philosophy.

My answer to this question is based upon the assumption that the philosophy of elementary education accepted in this State includes the notion that what makes up the program of elementary education should be whatever is best for promoting the physical and intellectual growth of children and that "whatever" may or may not take the form of information that can be organized in the form of subjects. The elementary philosophy which I am assuming is accepted in the State includes the idea that there should be a marked degree of local autonomy in determining educational needs and in devising an educational program to meet these needs.

With this assumption in mind, it seems to me that the chief points of difference between it and the philosophy of the Commission on Secondary Schools, as reflected in its standards, arises from the Commission's concept that an educational program must be made up of a number of subjects. In addition, the Commission apparently assumes the authority to define these subjects or units and to state the number of them that a pupil may take during any one year.

To support this position, the following quotations from the standards applying to colleges and secondary schools are cited as cases in point:

Admission of high school graduates to college—In the preparatory training, there shall be several sequences of subject matter adapted to the curriculum of the institutions where admission is sought.

Prescription of the secondary school program—The Commission (secondary) shall describe and design unit courses of study in the various secondary school programs. No four-year school shall be accredited which does not require for graduation the completion of a four-year course of study embracing sixteen units as defined by this Association. A unit is defined as a year in any subject in any secondary school constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work (120 sixty-minute hours of classroom work).

It seems obvious that the philosophy referred to in the above quotation is quite contrary to that which I assume is accepted for elementary education in this State. Perhaps the worst part about the matter is that the colleges prescribe what the high schools shall teach, and the high schools, in turn, go a considerable distance in deciding what the elementary schools shall teach.

Unfortunately, it is becoming similar.

Has the Southern Association influenced a State-wide study of the instructional program?

Responses from	Yes	No
Elementary	3	16
College	4	6
High School	2	4
Superintendent	5	12
State Departments of Education	4	16
Total	18	54

The above data show that a majority of all groups agree that the Southern Association has not influenced a state-wide study of the instructional program.

There are evidences in the explanatory responses such as those listed below that the Association has influenced a study of the instructional program at all levels:

During the past few years we have had an excellent supervisor of the high schools in the Southern Association visitor. His regular visits and contacts with the grade teachers as well as high school teachers have done much to stimulate the interesting program.

Indirectly through the stimulation of the State Department of Education to set high standards for the elementary schools.

A state-wide study has been made. I think the Association helped to bring the study about but there were other factors.

I do not know. The Association has used the Evaluative Criteria in studying certain ones of the high schools in this State.

If so, such influence was so subtle that it has not been evident.

Has the Southern Association hampered the development of a coördinated program of education from the elementary through the graduate school program?

Responses from	Yes	No
Elementary	14	5
College	9	1
High School	1	7
Superintendent	5	13
State Departments of Education	9	12
Total	38	38

The above data show the reaction as to whether or not the Southern Association has hampered the development of a coördinated program of education from the elementary through the graduate school program. While the total responses are evenly divided between "yes" and "no," it is significant that the elementary and college groups say emphatically "yes," and the high school and superintendent representatives say decidedly "no," while the State Department people say probably "no."

Some of the opinions as to how the Southern Association has hampered the development of a coördinated program are given below:

(1) By college entrance requirements. (2) By emphasis on high schools which led to a neglect of elementary school. (3) By encouraging high schools to meet material standards without regard to what is happening in elementary schools.

Some principals go into a community and try to make a mark by "getting the school on the Southern Association List." This means the upper 4 grades, neglecting grades 7 and 8 (Junior High) and the 6 lower grades.

Communities feel that if the high school is accredited, their schools are okay.

My opinion is that junior highs have set up standards in order to meet the demands of the Southern Association which are opposed to our philosophy of education in the elementary field. Thus we find it hard to overcome the breach between the sixth and seventh grade curriculum.

By focusing attention too exclusively on the 4-year high school and the college program; generally, the influence of the Southern Association has been toward maintaining traditional practices. Elementary school progress has often been away from traditional practices.

It begins "at the top" instead of building from the beginning.

What should be the relationship between the Southern Association and the elementary school?

Summary of Responses	Number
None	12
Do not know	3
Advisory	1
Friendly coöperation in development of total program of education	33
Association standards and accreditation should cover 12-grade program	33
Total	82

There were more responses to this question than to any of the previous ones. It is significant that the answers could be listed under only five classifications, and that sixty-seven responses indicated a need for closer rela-

onship between the Southern Association and the elementary school, changing from "Advisory" to "Association membership on the basis of school system—secondary and elementary schools."

Responses from each of the types tabulated in the summary were:

I do not believe it best for elementary schools to be included in the Southern Association because I fear that unless and until the philosophy motivating the Southern Association is changed, the membership of elementary schools in the Association will merely result in the Association gaining still more domination of what is taught in our elementary schools, the form in which it shall be taught, and the amount that shall be taught during any one year.

The entire educational program should be continuous and thoroughly coördinated in line with developmental stages of child growth.

One of friendly interest and encouragement, but not direct control and standardization.

It seems to me to be only sensible that the Southern Association should take some interest in the "feeder" schools; high school and college students are likely to be not much better than the elementary schools from which they come. No one would go to build a house without a foundation, but the Southern Association, by neglect of the elementary field, seems to have tried to do so.

I think the Southern Association should have a study made of how it can best help to build up the elementary schools.

Elementary schools should be included. "Feeder" schools of all Association member schools should meet equally high standards, and be evaluated along with the high school.

I do not know. This is too big a question to answer without study.

CONCLUSIONS

It should be clearly understood that this paper is based upon the opinions of eighty-four persons now holding positions at various educational levels in states served by the Southern Association. Appreciation is expressed to all who coöperated in furnishing the material. While the group who returned questionnaires is broadly representative, the sampling is admittedly small. It is hoped that this report will stimulate interest in a comprehensive study of Southern Association elementary school relationships.

The responses show that, on most of the questions, the elementary and college groups have a common viewpoint, and high school and superintendent groups present a united opposite opinion, while State Department personnel are nearly equally divided in opinion.

The data presented in this paper contain many evidences of the position of influence and power which the Southern Association occupies in the South—the result of its inestimable contribution to education at the college and secondary levels.

It is apparent from the responses that the opinion is somewhat general that the program of the Southern Association through the years has been a contributing factor in preventing elementary children from receiving their rightful share of available educational opportunities.

There appears to be a general desire at all educational levels in the states represented in the Southern Association to coöperate, on a friendly and sympathetic basis, in planning and building a total program of education that will meet the needs of the people who support the schools.

The Southern Association occupies a position of leadership. Will it accept the challenge?

Improvement of Instruction and the Work of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research*

BY EDGAR W. KNIGHT

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Some of the significant issues involved in the improvement of instruction in the secondary schools and higher educational institutions in the South have been generally recognized and more or less clearly identified by the Southern Association in recent years. Concern for these issues has long been evident and especially so since the creation of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research in 1935 and the promotion of the activities of the Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education which grew out of the work of that Commission. Initiation of both of these activities, as is well known, was in large part the result of the energetic interests and activities of the late Dean K. J. Hoke.

The work of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research has been reported from time to time and is now familiar to members of this association. So also are the activities of the Work Conferences on Higher Education, the final report of which will be published next May. During the past five years the work of these conferences has been reported in THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and through bulletins issued by Professor Roscoe E. Parker, Executive Secretary, of the Committee on Work Conferences.

The first of these conferences was held at the University of the South in July of 1941, the second conference was held, also, at that institution in June 1942, and the third conference, projected for 1943 but interrupted by the war, was delayed until July of 1946 when it was held at Converse College. Meantime, committees had continued to work on problems that emerged from the two conferences at the University of the South and through institutional committees. And in the spring of this year "Studies in Higher Education in the South" was published. This was distributed widely throughout the membership of the Southern Association, and to other people throughout the South and in other parts of the country, who were invited to offer criticisms and suggestions for the final report. On the basis of "Studies in Higher Education in the South" and criticisms and comments on it the work of the conference at Spartanburg was conducted. These activities of the Association and its Commissions may well be considered significant on the basic issue of the improvement of instruction in the schools and colleges of the South.

* An address delivered to a joint meeting of the three Commissions of the Southern Association, Tuesday, December 10, 1946.

The work of the Southern Association during its first half century was necessarily centered upon the development of quantitative educational standards, as Dr. Guy Snavely's *A Short History of the Southern Association* so clearly discloses. In the light of history and of developments in education in the South during these fifty years, it has become increasingly clear that the major task now facing the Association and educational workers in the South is to encourage and promote quality in education here. As the report which will appear in the August QUARTERLY points out, this task can be accomplished only by abandoning wasteful competition among educational institutions; by keeping higher education closely related to the needs of people in the South; by stimulating and supporting scholarship and research on problems peculiar to this section of the country which are the primary responsibilities of higher education; and by giving more serious attention to effective planning for the selection, education, certification, salaries, and tenure of teachers, and the improvement of other conditions under which teachers in both the secondary schools and the colleges work. It is now clearer, perhaps, than ever before that if instruction is to be improved in the schools and colleges of the Southern States the teachers must have a broad general education, as well as mechanical and technical training, and must be men and women who can guide, stimulate, and invigorate the lives of young people, and interpret, vitalize, and illuminate learning.

Here are the major tasks as well as the corresponding responsibilities of educational leadership in the Southern States. These tasks and these responsibilities are the joint obligations of the liberal arts colleges, the institutions designed primarily for the preparation of teachers, and those agencies of the State which have been entrusted with the responsibilities of licensing or certificating prospective teachers and those already in service. Involved also in these responsibilities are the organization and the administration of higher education. The faculties of the higher educational institutions and of the secondary schools must continue to be strengthened. The Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education and the participants in its undertakings have been keenly aware of these interrelated educational obligations.

These tasks and responsibilities involve the ancient issues of general and special education and the appropriate places of the humanities, the natural sciences, the social sciences, and teacher education. On these four areas of education the Committee on Work Conferences and its participants have sought the best advice available. It is believed that these new obligations to improve the quality of education in the South can be met. If intelligently met, revisions in educational policies and programs, strikingly different from policies and programs on which the energies of the Association were for its half century necessarily devoted, promise to develop.

One of the crucial issues in this country, as in other countries faced with reorganization and reconstruction of education, turns on the proper place of liberal or general education and vocational or specialized preparation. This is no time to introduce the arguments so frequently heard that there is no sharp division between liberal and vocational education. Properly conceived liberal education can be vocational; and in the sense that liberal education is designed to give an understanding of man and the world in which he lives, it can and should prepare men and women for the lives they are to live as human beings, as citizens, and as workers. Is it not true that this concept has already become recognized in the tendencies against pre-courses in such fields as Medicine, Law, and Engineering? It may be a little disturbing for some of us to learn that this view has not been recognized by people concerned with the future of secondary and higher education, particularly with reference to the education of teachers in these fields. It is encouraging to note, however, that the places of the humanities, the natural sciences, and the social sciences in the education of teachers are coming to be recognized in this important activity. The Committee on Work Conferences believes that the proper education of teachers for our schools and colleges should be more fully recognized as a responsibility of the whole institution and not merely that of a single department or school of education. The task of providing an adequate supply of properly educated teachers and leaders in education in the South is now more imperative than at any time during the past half century. The present acute shortage of teachers throughout the nation should serve as a warning against any threatening tendencies for teacher-educational institutions to become trade schools. The importance of the place of broad, liberal, and general education in the education of teachers appears more and more to be the joint responsibility of the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences, through intelligent inter-departmental relationships, if the quality of educational work is to be strengthened and if the danger of turning out mechanics for enriching and educational administration in the South is to be averted.

There are encouraging signs of interest in improving the quality of educational work in the South. These appear in continued study and coöperation through departmental faculties and interdepartmental committees in the institutions which show promise of more intelligent plans for the improvement of teaching; in the growing interest of graduate schools in their investigations for improving the quality of teaching; in the concern of instructional staffs, librarians, and administrative officers about the important place of libraries in improving the instructional work of the schools and colleges. As much as administrators here as elsewhere have not always exhibited energetic concern about the library in the educative process, that section of the report which deals with this subject is strongly commended not only to

instructional staffs and librarians themselves but especially to the administrative officers.

The Committee on Work Conferences also sees excellent opportunities for improving instruction in a more careful selection of students for admission from the secondary schools to the colleges. These opportunities appear in the intelligent use of appropriate tests before admission and intelligent advice to students during their collegiate careers. If such opportunities are properly met the next half century will witness in education in the South the development and the maintenance of an atmosphere conducive to scholarship, a love of learning, and a desire for excellence, and a healthy and active interest of education in the general improvement of life in the Southern States.

During the first half century of the Southern Association education in the South was marked by creditable quantitative achievements. The story of those achievements is a proud chapter in the educational history of this section of the country. The task ahead, to do qualitatively what has been done so well quantitatively, calls for the same kind of faith, courage, and persistent effort that the earlier task required. The record of the past and plans for the future furnish heartening evidence that instruction on all levels can be improved in the schools and colleges of the Southern States.

Significant Problems Involved in the Improvement of Instruction in Secondary Schools *

BY R. R. VANCE

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According to information currently available, every state in the territory served by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is attacking the omnipresent problem of *improvement of instruction*. Some states have improvement programs which have been long in operation. Others have programs the essential features of which have been relatively recently developed. The philosophy and the principles underlying the development of curriculum programs in the various states possess certain common features; but, as is to be expected, there are some rather distinctive features in the programs. After a careful assembling of many of the instructional problems which have been isolated for especial study by the states of the South, it is increasingly evident that World War II has been responsible for bringing them into clear relief and focusing attention upon them. In that respect, the late war, despite its staggering toll of human life and material wealth, may be regarded as a blessing if people are wise enough to attack the problems whose solution has so long been neglected.

In the pages of this paper, an effort will be made to set forth some of the procedures most frequently and effectively used in the Southern territory to achieve better teaching in the secondary schools. It is well to remember that instructional improvement programs center around the child. One Southern state has set forth a threefold objective of improvement which seems to be generally accepted by all states: (1) "to produce the best courses possible for the children. . .," (2) to secure the participation of teachers in improving the instructional program to the end that they may grow professionally and thus become more effective teachers, and (3) to engender in all citizens an increased knowledge of, and interest in, problems of education. The main problems of instructional improvement and some of the techniques for arriving at their solution are briefly outlined in the remaining pages of this report.

The states seem to have accepted the common-sense principle of determining *needs to be met* as a basis for the establishment of a program of instructional improvement. These needs have been ascertained in many different ways *e. g.*, through the familiar questionnaire, through conferences,

An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Commissions on Institutions of Higher Education, Secondary Schools, and Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, December 10, 1946.

through letters of inquiry, through observation, through experience, etc. Furthermore, statements of needs have been secured, not only from school people, but from lay citizens as well. Such a procedure seems sound. Doubtless it would do a great deal of good and open many eyes if school people would increasingly bring the lay public into their deliberations concerning the strengths and weaknesses of public education.

After the needs have been definitely determined, it seems to be a common practice in the South to encourage local school systems to develop their own courses of study using the personnel of state departments of education and teacher-training institutions for consultative purposes only. This is a laudable procedure and needs to be further encouraged.

II. The survey has become a most important medium for revising the program of studies. At times the survey is comprehensive and attempts to cover every aspect of public education. In one Southern state, such a comprehensive survey occupied approximately two years and covered the following specific fields:

1. The Determination of Needs
2. The Needs That Should Be Met through a Program of Public Education
3. Instruction
4. Personnel
5. School Plant and Pupil Transportation
6. Finance
7. Organization and Administration
8. Studies of Higher Education
9. The Long-Range Program
10. Next Steps

In other states, the survey has been confined to a definite problem, *e. g.*, what do boys and girls actually do on leaving school? The underlying purposes of every survey are the same, *viz.*, (1) to secure such factual data as will indicate whether the schools are or are not training youth to become intelligent and participating members of the existent social order, and (2) to use these data as indicating in what direction modifications should be made.

An interesting variation of the survey in one Southern state is the 4-member Education Panel of the 22-member Agricultural and Industrial Development Board of that state. The Panel was charged with the dual responsibility of (1) "making studies and investigations at all levels . . . , and initiating and carrying on long-range developmental programs;" and (2) "organizing and initiating local and county educational planning and developmental programs." This procedure appears typical of that employed in the making of comparable investigations in other states.

III. The workshop has assumed a major role in stimulating school personnel to find better ways of doing its respective jobs. The principle of the workshop is everywhere the same, *viz.*, teachers or administrators with com-

mon problems meet together and, more important still, work together in attempting to solve these problems. A most important by-product of the workshop is this learning to work coöperatively together. The workshop can result in incalculable improvement when all members pool their collective knowledge and experiences toward the solution of a common problem. One Southern state has published and distributed a bulletin entitled "Suggestions for Workshops in 1946-47." Some of the suggested workshops for both elementary and secondary schools are:

1. Language Arts
2. Nutrition
3. Arithmetic
4. Industrial Arts
5. Art
6. Physical Education
7. Music
8. Science
9. Writing
10. Library
11. A Historical, Geographic, Economic, Educational, and Social Study of the State
12. Children's Literature
13. Auditory and Visual Aids
14. Speech
15. Other Subjects
16. Evaluative Criteria

The length of the workshop naturally varies according to the complexity of the individual problem to be studied and according to the number of problems to be studied. A few states stress the cumulative effects of the workshop by scheduling group meetings for individual sessions of two or three hours in length, two or three times a month, and covering a total period of two or three months.

IV. It appears that the conference is the most frequently employed medium for effecting instructional improvement. The philosophy underlying the conference is similar to that underlying the workshop. The conference period, however, is, as a rule, shorter than the workshop period, although one state has reported the holding of conferences averaging three days in length. And, too, the conference usually deals with some of the more restricted and, hence, less complex problems.

Most supervisory and administrative personnel spend the greater part of their professional lives attending conferences, and this statement is not made disparagingly. Conferences, intelligently planned, will ever remain convenient clearing houses, so to speak, in which educational personnel can indulge in a wholesome exchange of experiences and can formulate programs of action. Herein lies the effectiveness of any conference. One that

does not result in a program of action is hardly worth the time and effort expended.

One state enlisted the active coöperation of more than a hundred teachers, principals, and superintendents who worked for three years in thinking out and planning a program of improvement. These teachers, principals, and superintendents worked as individuals, in committees, and in informal groups. The bulletin reporting this particular study is unique in that it contains a statement of the principles of education prepared by a committee of laymen. Inasmuch as it is a bit unusual to find educational principles enunciated by laymen, they are quoted below:

1. Education is the right of every citizen in a democracy. This right belongs to children but extends to every age.
2. A democracy's chance of survival depends on the full recognition of this obligation. Its discharge should, therefore, be at the public expense.
3. Education must never degenerate into a cut-and-dried program, catering to the fancied needs of some particular class, but should be organized and administered for the enlightenment of the people and in the interest of their common good.
4. Education should come to grips with everyday needs, how to live, how to earn a living, and how to advance the common good.
5. Education is not the master but the servant of all. Its standards are to be adjusted to individuals and to groups—not to force these into some mold of its own.
6. The task of education demands the enlistment and retention of teachers broad of sympathy, wide in experience, full in perspective, devoted to the cause, and truly skilled in its arts. The best are none too good.
7. A profession of such skilled teachers may be trusted to plan the state's instructional program in the light of these principles.

The foregoing principles became the basis for meeting the challenge of the pressing, unsolved problems of the state in question. Some of the most significant of these problems, symptomatic of undemocratic conditions, are as follows:

1. *The challenge to country schools to enrich rural life, to save the small farmer and the tenant from threatened peasantry.*
2. *The challenge to schools in industrial centers to prevent group segregation and group sensitivity—both of which are palpably undemocratic.*
3. *The challenge to schools for whites to develop an honest and fair-minded attitude toward the other large racial group, to sense the worth to the white race of adequate educational opportunities for Negroes, and, if for no other reason than enlightened selfishness, to commit the white race to a program of better health, better schools, and a better standard of living for Negroes.*
4. *The challenge to all schools . . . to make health paramount in their program and adequate public health service an important item in raising the standard of living in this state.*
5. *The challenge to all schools . . . to embody in their social science materials impartial studies of low wage scales, poor health conditions, child labor on farms, high percentage of illiteracy,*

eral slums, and other factors in the low standard of living, and to make clear that only by raising the standard of living for all groups can there be any widespread or lasting prosperity.

6. *The challenge to all people . . . to bring into the forefront of their thinking the interesting and worthy history of the state so that whatever in the past is significant for the present may be transmitted with pride and satisfaction, and provide inspiration for future action.*

7. *The challenge to all schools . . . to take account of the varied resources of the state in climate, forests, mines, streams, and people to the end that children may know what (the state) has, and may be able in the years to come to develop these resources and preserve for themselves and their children this great natural heritage.*

V. Certain states in the South have endeavored to bring about instructional improvement by making the transition from the 7-4 organization to the 8-4 organization. The resultant eight years of elementary school preparation for high school work means better preparation for high school and is bound to be reflected in a higher achievement on the part of those who progressively advance through the years assigned to the secondary school organization.

VI. There is now in progress in the Southern states a study calculated to bring vocational education and general education into closer relationship. For the past two years, the Southern States' Work Conference on School Administrative Problems, which meets annually at Daytona Beach, Florida, for two weeks, has been giving this problem careful study. Individual states, under the impetus given by the Southern States' Work Conference, have accomplished much toward breaking down some of the barriers existing between vocational education and general education. This work should, by all means, be continued. So-called vocational education and general education are integral parts of a total school program and as such should contribute maximally to the development of the secondary school student. As a matter of fact, there is no clearly defined line of demarcation between them. Vocational education, as it is commonly designated, can contribute immeasurably to the general education of the secondary school boy and girl; and general education, as it is commonly designated, can contribute immeasurably to making the secondary school boy and girl vocationally competent. The work which is being done in this field has far-reaching implications. If, as will result, it is fondly hoped, in doing away with much of the segmentation or departmentalization that even yet exists in subject-matter fields.

VII. There has been and is a tendency in some states toward the development of a core curriculum. It is necessary at this juncture to set forth a brief explanation as to what is meant by the core curriculum. Traditionally, high schools have required sixteen units of credit for graduation. Some of these units are in prescribed or required courses, and the remaining units are in courses designated as elective. Originally, the courses prescribed or

required of all pupils constituted the core. As a result of the work done in curriculum revision in the Southern States within the past twelve or fifteen years, the core has come to mean, not a number of specific subjects required of all pupils for graduation from high school, but a study of socially significant problems, a study carried on independently of subjects or courses as such. This does not mean that English, the social studies, and science will not be taught; it does mean, however, that they will be functionally taught as they contribute to the solution of socially significant or persistent problems. In other words, students so instructed will learn English, for example, by using it to solve problems. The core curriculum does not yet seem to have gained widespread favor, but the willingness to continue to study its possibilities is a happy sign.

VIII. There is a definitely observed trend toward unifying education in the Southern States. Programs of education are still somewhat discrete. There has been a program for the elementary school and another for the high school, and this despite the fact that in innumerable rural communities in the South the elementary school and the high school are housed in the same building. If not in the same building, at least on the same campus and frequently under the same administrative head. In a word, there has not been the continuity of organization that scientifically-minded and progressive school people have a right to expect. A unified program of education means, then, a continuous program from grades one through 12 and not an 8-4, 6-3-3, or some other kind of organization which emphasizes the part rather than the whole. The 12-year program, according to current publications of the state departments of education in the South, is definitely on its way to realization.

IX. An observable trend in secondary education in the South is in the direction of setting up fairly clearly defined instructional objectives and conducting a critical analysis of teaching methods. To a large extent, World War II is responsible for this trend. Entirely too often the curriculum and the courses of study comprising it are taken for granted with little knowledge of what they accomplish or can accomplish. Objectives should be formulated on the basis of known needs, and the curriculum should be adjusted to meet them. Frequently the reverse is true. It seems a truism to say that needs cannot be interwoven into a formal curricular pattern.

As to teaching methods, the armed forces have driven home some lessons which should have been learned long ago. I refer to some of the instructional short cuts which were taken without a consequent sacrifice of accomplishment and mastery of content. I refer also to the effective use of audio-visual education in furthering and expediting the training of America's fighting personnel. So rapid but effective was that training in realizing the objective at hand, the defeat of the Axis powers, that education may well con-

der the problem of altered teaching methods as they lead to the realization of succinctly stated objectives.

One state has formulated the following teaching objectives and methods of instruction:

Objectives of Teaching

1. Discovery, Utilization, and Conservation of Our Human and Natural Resources
2. Work Experiences
3. World Outlook
4. Leadership
5. Social Education
6. Guidance
7. Rededication to the Democratic Ideal
8. Community Relations
9. Veterans' Education

Methods of Instruction

1. Functional Learning
2. The Place of Purpose
3. Consideration for Individual Needs and Problems of Children
4. Creativeness
5. Utilization of Community Resources
6. Supplementary Learning Materials

An examination of the afore-mentioned curriculum objectives and teaching methods reveals a wholesome evidence that instructional improvement receiving prime consideration. Such a program bespeaks results which we promise of being considered as highly satisfactory.

It is gratifying to find *guidance* listed among the *objectives of teaching*. The problem of guidance and counseling is found, stated in one form or another, in all the instructional improvement programs of the South.

X. It is evident from a careful scrutiny of the professional literature prepared and disseminated by the various state departments of education that supervision is coming to play a greater role in instructional improvement than ever before. The concept of supervision has changed somewhat, to be sure, but never has there been a greater demand for supervision of the sympathetic, helpful, wholly professional kind. Supervisory staffs have been augmented in many states, and in others there is a persistent demand for additional supervisory services. This demand brings with it the concomitant responsibility which rests upon the shoulders of supervisors everywhere to render a service commensurate with what is hopefully anticipated of them. One Southern state's supervisory program for this year is divided into the following categories:

1. The Principal's Job of Supervision
2. In-Service Training
3. Planned Supervision
4. Intervisitation
5. Exchange Teaching

XI. In conclusion, it is the inescapable conviction of all who exercise any responsibility for the improvement of instruction that education in the future must perform three tasks: (1) teach more people than ever before, because the school is failing to reach a large portion of the populace, particularly out-of-school youth and adults; (2) teach these people more effectively than ever before, because thoroughness and efficiency are highly necessary in an increasingly complex civilization; and (3) teach these people more than have ever been taught to any preceding group, because there are now so many more things to learn. To do this task commendably means an economy of time and effort but not an economy which sacrifices mastery and thoroughness of achievement. Inasmuch as the conscientious teacher will not be able to teach everything that she would like to teach, she must give careful consideration to comparative values. That is, she must intelligently select from a multiplicity of curricular materials those which, in her professional judgment, most nearly satisfy the needs of her own children.

There will always be instructional problems to solve, and it is well that there will be. Satisfaction with the present status of instruction is fatal to educational progress and development. The most progressive teacher, supervisor, or administrator in the world is that teacher, supervisor, or administrator who can evaluate instructional procedures, measure results, and identify the emerging problems; and, having successfully identified them, can adopt means for effecting their solution.

Significant Problems Involved in the Improvement of Instruction in Colleges*

BY C. CLEMENT FRENCH

Dean, Randolph-Macon Woman's College

I have been asked to contribute to this panel from the viewpoint of the college. The more carefully one looks into the question from this angle, the more one may be forced to conclude that the question is like the weather: something about which "something should be done, but isn't." And yet because the question is at the very heart of the college, we return to it time and again. May I recall something of the past before making some suggestions for the present and future?

In 1933 there was published in the *Bulletin of the Association of University Professors* a report of a special committee of that organization on college and university teaching. A committee of subject-matter teachers carried on an extensive investigation through chapters of the Association and presented a report to which the attention of any college teacher or administrator can still be directed with profit. It suggested that the real purpose of college teaching must be agreed upon if one is to decide whether there is bad or good teaching. It was stated that the real purpose of college teaching is to induce self-propelled intellectual activity on the part of the student." It suggested that as obstacles to good teaching the following might be mentioned:

1. The admission to college of too many unqualified students;
2. The lack of criteria of good teaching and the lack of adequate reward therefor;
3. The tendency to over-encourage and over-value research;
4. The failure of the profession to attract broadly cultured young men of personal attractiveness.

It was realized that certain steps were necessary to accomplish the improvement of instruction. There must be agreement on the characteristics of a good teacher, and some of these were listed:

1. Breadth and richness of content in his courses;
2. Good organization of material;
3. Clearness in explanation;
4. Ability to get the student's point of view;
5. Skill in arousing discussion;
6. Care in assignment of papers and parallel reading;
7. Availability for consultation;
8. Interest in students as individuals;
9. The ability to stimulate a student to the highest level of achievement;
10. General influence on student morale.

* An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Commissions on Institutions of Higher Education, Secondary Schools, and Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, December 10, 1946.

It was also recognized that in order to place good teaching on a parity with research in considering promotion some dependable way of recognizing good teaching was necessary. It was emphasized strongly that this must be a matter of adjustment in the local situation. The following suggestions were made regarding this point:

1. The results obtained by students in objective examinations tell something about the ability of a professor in meeting the purposes of the course.
2. Student ratings when not given with the advice and consent of the teacher have nearly always had unfortunate results; however, if secured from the information of the instructor, they may be good.
3. In departments large enough to make it possible, good results have come from having one person who is a good teacher himself and interested in teaching to look after that phase of the department's work. There was considerable discussion in the report of required education courses for college teachers. Many education authorities favored these and say that there has been a steady trend among college administrators in the same direction. Almost universally, subject-matter teachers said "no," pointing out that on most campuses education courses are considered the poorest in college. The middle ground opinion, however, seemed to favor some contact in the graduate school for the prospective teacher with ways of teaching his own subject-matter. It was generally agreed that prescribed courses in education would not solve the problem but that the profession would be helped by a study of means which would enable teachers to be more effective in educational leadership, more objective in the evaluation of their own teachings, and more familiar with the learning processes of their own students.

Two very complete studies of this subject have been published since the above report. In 1935, *The Effective and Ineffective College Teacher* was published by Anna Reed. This is a careful study in both arts and teachers' colleges of factors entering into the selection of teachers and the evaluation of teacher efficiency. She summarizes a large number of causes for inefficiency in teachers, among which the most important are: 1. An oblivion to modern methods, 2. Mental inertia, 3. Too departmental minded, and 4. The inability to inspire young people.

As methods of improving instruction, the following are suggested:

1. Adequate library facilities;
2. Practical recognition of teaching efficiency;
3. Departmental conferences;
4. A periodic restatement of objectives in courses;
5. Joint conferences with other departments and faculties;
6. Maintenance of student contacts through personal interview to get the view of student problems.

Her summary of the characteristics of effective college teachers listed the following:

1. Professional efficiency, 2. Broad scholarship and mastery of his field, 3. A sympathetic attitude toward—and interest in—his students, and 4. Good personality characteristics.

In 1940 a very extensive book, called *The Background for College Teachers*, was published by Louella Cole. I shall not take time to refer in any detail to it except to suggest that for anyone interested in the field it is a mine of information. It does give one summary worth mentioning under the heading, "Why College Teachers Are Promoted." In order of importance they are the following: 1. Publications, 2. New degrees, 3. Completion of some particular research, 4. Some recent honor involving public recognition, and 5. Efficiency in administrative work. You will notice that good teaching is not even mentioned as a factor.

The reports of the 1941 and 1942 Work Conferences at Sewanee include a section for both years on the group studying this same question. In both groups it was pointed out that for good teaching there must be a clear statement of the objectives of instruction. The major deficiencies were discussed at length and included the obverse of many of the characteristics of an effective teacher listed above. Definite methods for the improvement of instruction were suggested, including: 1. Provision in courses for conferences on teacher problems, 2. A definite system of counseling with young teachers, 3. Definite rewards for good teachers by the administration, and 4. External examinations.

Little could be added to the various summaries mentioned above. What are the problems involved in improvement when so much has been said and written about the subject? In the first place, it seems to me that we are still too little agreed, even in an individual college of a particular type, on just what we aim to do. Certainly until we have clearly in mind the ideal toward which our teaching aims, it cannot help but be more or less ineffective. Assuming that we have set such goals with reasonable clarity, then the question of how to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching arises. We are dealing with probably the most individualistic group in any of the professional fields. Unfortunately for the success of any evaluation the college teacher is in the unique position of planning his own courses, giving his own instruction, making up his own examinations to test his own students, and in the end, giving his own verdict on himself. As someone has said, "He looks at his own handiwork and says that it is good."

Under these conditions it is easy to see why the whole question of objective evaluation of a teacher is so very difficult. Coupled with both of these problems is the deep-seated antipathy of the subject-matter teacher to anything having to do with education. While now and then we may know an "edu-

cationist" whom we like as a person, most of us still will have nothing to do with his subject. While most of us think that the "educationist" has brought this down upon himself, it is still a rather incredible situation that the college teacher should refuse to consider the possibility of self-improvement in the techniques of his life work.

What then is the solution, if any? I believe the most hopeful approach lies in interesting college teachers themselves in inaugurating a program of self-analysis. If we as teachers will not consider such a possibility when it is raised by the "educationist" and are afraid or resentful if it is raised by the administration, possibly we may be wise enough in the end to realize the sheer necessity of looking at ourselves on our own initiative. When this time comes, I believe there are available adequate material and effective methods of evaluation which will give us the material we need to see the line of our own improvement.

Significant Problems in the Improvement of Instruction on the Graduate Level*

BY ROGER P. McCUTCHEON

Dean, Graduate School, Tulane University

In the summer of 1945 I attended five conferences on the problem of graduate education for Negroes. At each of these conferences the Negro educators told us something like this: "Teaching is the profession in which the best minds of our race find their freest and most rewarding outlet; our race looks to its teachers for leadership; our brightest people go into teaching." Then they would look at us with polite but firm inquiry as if to say, "Do your best young people go into teaching?"

We shall all agree that the economic rewards in the teaching profession must be greatly increased. Also, we have stressed too little the personal satisfactions of the teacher. Perhaps, on the other hand, too many teachers do not find their work satisfying. It may be because of the community attitude to the teacher, or because of temperamental difficulties, or because of the nature of professional training. In this last matter the graduate schools have some responsibility.

In the graduate school there is no better single test of the teacher than the contribution he has made to the subject he teaches. This marks him as a creative scholar. Some teachers can be measured by the scholars whom they have trained. On one or the other of these qualities, creative scholarship or creating scholars, a teacher in a graduate school must justify himself. The best graduate teacher will have both of these characteristics.

Our graduate schools believe also that their products will be better teachers if having been trained in research. We know that teaching conditions in colleges which employ the products of our graduate schools are not always conducive to research. Hence it is that the five year plan of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, just now getting under way, has been described by some of its beneficiaries as an answer to prayer. Twenty Southern colleges and four university centers are directly and generously aided by this plan. As coördinator for the New Orleans-Tulane Center, I have recently visited the five colleges which are coöperating with us. Men who had despaired of being able to continue research are now again alive. At our own university, the Carnegie plan has enabled us to be much more generous with research grants. We believe that this stimulus will certainly be reflected in the teaching of our faculty, as they find more and more intellectual satisfaction in pushing back the frontiers of knowledge.

*An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Commissions on Institutions of Higher Education, Secondary Schools, and Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, December 10, 1946.

If our graduate faculties are thus stimulated to better teaching through the vitalization of their research, we hope that more of our good students will select teaching as their profession. Dull teachers do find their way into college faculties; they also get on the faculty of graduate schools. They have a diabolical prepotency in begetting more dull teachers. Perhaps we can compensate for the dull ones by giving better recognition to the brilliant and stimulating teachers on the university faculties.

But even the best graduate faculty may find itself hampered by regulations and requirements, and so fail to do a good job. Let us examine first the regulations of the graduate school. These generally provide that the applicant for graduate work shall have had from eighteen to twenty-four semester hours of undergraduate work on which to base his graduate major. For the student who plans ahead, these requirements present no difficulty. But Mr. X, who has been teaching science courses in high school for two or three years, had as an undergraduate only elementary chemistry and biology. He is now teaching general science, and perhaps physics also. Obviously he needs further training in the sciences. To enter a graduate class in chemistry or biology he must have had two more undergraduate courses. A graduate physics course will require mathematics through calculus. From the standpoint of the graduate school, therefore, Mr. X is not qualified to enroll in science courses. So Mr. X takes courses in education. Clearly he would be a much better teacher of high school science if he could get subject-matter courses.

Some graduate schools are meeting such situations by accepting courses in allied fields as appropriate prerequisites for graduate study. For example, an applicant who has had only twelve hours of undergraduate history but who has supporting courses in political science, economics and sociology may be admitted to work on the graduate level. The next step may be to provide graduate courses which are better adjusted to the previous training of such applicants.

That from 15 per cent to 20 per cent of the prospective teacher's undergraduate work should be in the field of professional education most of us have accepted. That any larger proportion of undergraduate work should be in education is open to doubt. Requirements which force graduate students to become majors in education rather than in subject-matter fields are also dubious. A new requirement in Louisiana will demand twelve hours of graduate work in educational administration for those who wish positions as principals. On this point two observations may be made. First, there is as yet no proof that twelve hours in this subject can do significantly more than a good six-hour course. In fact, some of us know excellent six-hour courses in educational administration that will have to be inflated and padded to meet this new requirement. Secondly, a twelve-hour requirement effectively prevents the student from taking a major in a subject-matter

ld. Now it will be said that only 4 per cent of the teachers ever become principals and that the regulation is relatively harmless. Probably less than 4 per cent of a college faculty will ever become deans, for that matter. Twelve hours of professional courses were required for deanships, 90 per cent of any faculty would attempt to qualify because of the extra salary and prestige with which rightly or wrongly the deanship is associated. In short, a requirement which is set up for principals only is certain to be met by many who have very remote chances of becoming principals, but who want to be prepared if the opening comes their way. I submit that a six-hour requirement instead of a twelve-hour requirement in educational administration for principals should be considered. For that matter, we should abandon any requirements in the graduate schools or in the certification plans for teachers which are so artificial or absurd that they tend to keep the best students out of the profession of teaching.

To what degree do our graduate schools take seriously their responsibility in training teachers for college level work? Some 60 per cent of the products of Southern graduate schools do go into teaching, at one level or another. The research program for the Ph.D. has always stressed the extension of knowledge rather than the communication of knowledge. The point is often made that the possession of adequate knowledge plus training in research constitutes an excellent basis on which to begin teaching, and that the able person will make a good teacher out of himself anyhow. But the graduate schools should consider carefully the establishment of apprenticeship programs which will give the candidates some real teaching experience under supervision. Whether the graduate students who serve as departmental assistants actually get proper supervision and really learn much about the teaching process now depends almost entirely upon the department. A student assistant may be only a glorified dishwasher; he may become the personal flunky for a professor and do the chores of research and bibliography which the great man is now too busy or too grand to do for himself. On the other hand, the graduate assistant may get a really valuable apprenticeship in the craft of teaching. At present, in most of our graduate schools the dean has all too little actual knowledge of such matters on which to base recommendations of prospective teachers.

Finally, the immediate pressure on our graduate schools to turn out teachers for the overcrowded colleges of the region must not be permitted to lower the quality of the product. Perhaps this is the best time we are likely to have to insist on quality and stay out of mass production. Now that there are more students than we can admit, how about skimming the cream? If we make it more difficult for the mediocre student to obtain a graduate degree, we shall thereby increase the respect in which graduate study is regarded by the bright undergraduates. This in turn should lead to a larger student population than we have ever seen.

I, for one, think that the graduate schools can do their jobs better than they have in the past. It is all too easy to see in the world around us conditions which give cause for uneasiness and even despair. On the other hand in the fine creative art which is teaching at its best, may there not come development similar to the improvements which are evident in some allied fields? Twenty years ago, who would have predicted the noticeable improvement in high school and college music that we have today. You will remember the college glee club program of your own vintage, pleasant enough, but of no great musical consequence. In our high schools today the students are singing Elizabethan Madrigals and Bach choruses. And who would then have predicted the present great increase in the number of symphony orchestras in America? The success of the Associated American Artists in bringing fine etchings and engravings within reach of a large buying public is another instance of the cultural advance we are making. Along with the wide display of murder stories which are now sold for a quarter you may have noted an increasing number of excellent books that are now within the reach of all. This improvement in our general culture did not come automatically. These cultural advances are due to individual initiative, skilfully and energetically applied. In like manner it will take the combined, sustained, and intelligent effort of a devoted few to bring about the needed reforms in the craft of teaching. But if teaching can be made not only a respectable but an exciting and rewarding intellectual adventure, we shall not lack worthy applicants for this noble profession.

The Contribution of the Library to the Improvement of Instruction *

BY W. S. HOOLE

Director of Libraries, University of Alabama

One of the most significant problems involved in the improvement of instruction centers about our failure as professional educators to teach man to live intelligently with good books.

Teaching is one of the world's oldest professions. Yet during the countless centuries we have devoted to the art, we have somehow ingloriously fallen short of knighting our students with the zeal for self-mastery through reading. Otherwise, perhaps, we have successfully guarded our realm. Certainly, we have faithfully devised many new methods and mechanics to defend it. Meanwhile, in our efforts we have turned our fickle attention from one new system to another, glossing each over in its own time with apt and precise terminology. From all our assembled philosophies there doubtless arises a certain professional grandeur. But the fact remains, we will admit, that in all our esoteric experiments we have not up to this hour fulfilled our major responsibility to society of inspiring students to want to live understandingly with the best that has been said and thought in the world.

Our secondary school colleagues tell us that an uncommonly high percentage of their pupils laboriously decipher one by one the words of a printed page, trying in vain to piece the puzzle together into a rational whole. College classrooms are likewise filled with memorizers and readers by rote, their tragedy being greater merely because it is of longer duration. All of them, as the saying goes, are still learning to read, not reading to learn. The guiding spark of the true reader, the genius of critical thought, is missing. They are men who have never sent a ship out wait at the dock for their ship to come

As in writing books with a pen of fire, there is also a way of reading books creatively. No one doubts the joy of surprise that is the reader's as he comes upon a thought out of the past that is his own thought, lying in waiting to be found. Nor would we deny the way his heart leaps up when he falls suddenly upon a new-found idea which, with foresight, he stores aside against a rainy day. This we would call flush-reading-hunting, as it were, without a dog. The true reader is better equipped. He brings to the printed page an inventive mind, remembering that the book before him yields dividends only in proportion to his deposits and that the thoughts he reads become alive

An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Commissions on Institutions of Higher Education, Secondary Schools, and Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, December 10, 1946.

and luminous only in so far as he conveys to these thoughts the matching genius of his own creativeness.

We who teach are sometimes wont to run around in circles, packing the good but dull earth of our humanities, of our liberal or general learning. We often disagree on principles. Even our definitions are vague, nebulous, often meaningless. Surely the day must come when we who stand on the record as advocating the book will be forced to abandon our platitudes and get down to an analysis of exactly what we have to offer man in his search for truth. And that, unless we are sadly mistaken, will be man's self-reliance upon the originality of his own mind. Nothing we do can change the past; but the future lies before us to shape as we will. Today we read but the "first verse of the first chapter of a book whose pages are infinite."

We who teach, we are told, live in a backward-looking world. The moon-glow of the past falls bewitchingly upon it and our eyes are blinded by the sun of the present. Everywhere about us, from waking to sleeping, is the book, the testimony of man's achievement up to our time. This achievement we honor, for it is the foundation upon which we build. But honoring is not enough. To this great heritage, the legacies of yesterday, we must apply generation after generation the beneficence of our own thought, interpreting yesterday's attainment in the light of today's newer truth. Our responsibility, as teachers, therefore, in the spirit of inquest is to get; but it is our larger responsibility in the spirit of conquest to give. For we want the future to be better than the present, just as we believe, perhaps naively, the present to be better than the past.

The responsibility of directing students to an intelligent use of good books rests squarely upon the shoulders of all of us, the executive, the librarian, and the teacher. Each in his own way has an important role to play. However, it is primarily the teacher who holds the power to unleash and energize the thoughts that well spontaneously from the open and eager minds of those for whom we labor.

Successful teaching is not a matter of methodology. Nor is it merely a matter of erudition. The talent for good teaching consists, also, of an enthusiastic desire for communicating to others those ideas we believe to be ennobling, and of wanting those ideas eternally challenged by the living spark of creative thought. So long as we drain from truth yet another measure just so long will our end-product be pure and imperishable. The moment we cease to teach our students to read thoughtfully and critically, encouraging them to fall wholly back upon the book, at that moment the book becomes a dogmatic tyrant to stifle and dwarf us and at last to render us impotent. There are more errors to be found in print than anywhere else on

th. The enlightened reader is he who refuses to believe anything simply because he saw it in a book. And the teacher to beware is the teacher with the text.

The stimulation of students to self-education through intelligent reading is a primary duty of every teacher. It is also the crowning glory of our profession, for we who teach must realize that we are at best but envoys of truth, not truth itself.

Unless we proclaim, therefore, unreservedly the virtue and strength of good books in the improvement of instruction, resolving always to bring them and our students closer and closer together, we fail to fulfill a major obligation to the society which sanctions our continuance.

Report of the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools *

BY ROGER P. MCCUTCHEON

Dean of the Graduate School, Tulane University

INTRODUCTION

In this post-war period there is an expansion of American education at all levels which is absolutely unique in the history of education. Higher education in particular will find it difficult under the circumstances to maintain satisfactory standards, and there is danger that graduate work, particularly graduate work at the Master's level, will deteriorate unless strong and effective measures are taken to prevent it. Furthermore, these measures must be taken immediately since many institutions which did not grant the Master's degree in the past, or which were granting poor Master's degrees, are now embarking on ambitious programs of instruction at the graduate level and are often being encouraged by influential local groups to do so. We are all sufficiently familiar with Gresham's Law to realize that the wide development of poor programs leading to the Master's degree will have a very bad effect on sound programs leading to the Master's degree, and much of our labor in building up high standards for the Master's degree will be lost.

The Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have done outstanding work in setting up high standards for the Master's degree throughout the South, and the work of these two groups in this connection has without question helped to stimulate interest and action in the Association of American Universities. It is now necessary to take appropriate action to maintain and improve the standards for the Master's degree, and the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have a splendid opportunity again to assume leadership at a critical time in higher education. It is undoubtedly with the critical situation of higher education in mind that the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools was requested to make a study of the accrediting work leading to the Master's degree and to take action on a possible program of accreditation at its annual meeting. The Committee on the Accreditation of Work Leading to the Master's Degree is now presenting its report which includes specific recommendations.

* A report to a joint meeting of the three Commissions of the Southern Association on Tuesday, December 10, 1946. The Commission on Institutions of Higher Education had the report before it in considering standards for graduate work to be proposed at the Fifty-second Annual Meeting.

BASIC PRINCIPLES AND OBSERVATIONS

An institution which is not a member of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools or some equivalent regional association could not be offering graduate work of any kind, and advanced degrees conferred by such an institution should not be recognized under any condition by responsible educational bodies.

In general, no institution which is not on the approval list of the Association of American Universities, even if it is a member of its own regional association, should attempt, or be encouraged to attempt, to offer graduate work leading to the Master's degree.

The Minimum Standards for the Master's Degree endorsed by the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools in 1940 and subsequently approved by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, in their present form or in an amended form, should be used, so far as they apply, for guidance purposes in determining whether a department is capable of giving graduate work of proper quality leading to the Master's degree. A program of accreditation should be carried out not on the basis of institutions, as is done in the accreditation of colleges, but rather on the basis of departments. The following statement from the "Report of the Special Committee on Accrediting Graduate Study," *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Forty-sixth Annual Conference* of the Association of American Universities (1945), p. 41, is pertinent:

While it is clear that appraisal of graduate study must be made against the background of the institution as a whole, the requirements must be sought department by department, or by departments in related groups. It is our conviction that only with a first rate departmental research and teaching faculty, a well-stocked library, modern and adequate equipment, a spirit which induces fundamental investigation and discovery, and strong related departments, will real scholars be trained. Given an adequately equipped institution, and a sound department, we need not worry too much about specific programs of study.

The qualifications of the members of the teaching staff in the major department, and in the supporting departments, offering graduate work, and the conditions under which they teach, should be especially emphasized and examined in evaluating the capability of a department to offer a sound program of graduate work.

A properly qualified teacher at the graduate level should have taken a Ph.D. degree in a good department in a nationally recognized institution, and he should be carrying on and publishing some research in his field.

A member of the staff who is teaching graduate courses and directing graduate students should not be required to have a teaching load above nine or ten lecture hours per week.

A department offering graduate work should have adequate library or laboratory facilities for carrying on work of good quality in a field, or signifi-

cant portion of a field, of knowledge. In the case of library facilities, it would be permissible to take into account the facilities offered by other institutions in a given area, provided that use of such facilities would be reasonably convenient.

A candidate for the Master's degree should have the opportunity, even if he should not be strictly required, to work under at least two, but preferably three, properly qualified teachers at the graduate level.

Dissertations submitted for the Master's degree should be examined with care, since such dissertations will ordinarily furnish concrete and reliable information on the quality of graduate work in a given department.

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR THE MASTER'S DEGREE

I. Quantitative Standards

A. Admission: Possession by the applicant of a Bachelor's degree from a recognized college, regarded as standard by the institution and by a regional or general accrediting agency.

B. Undergraduate Major: The applicant shall present a transcript which, for unconditional admission, shall show a sufficient and satisfactory (*i. e.* "B" grade or better) undergraduate preparation, including advanced preparation in the major field (12 semester hours of upper division work being suggested as a minimum).

C. Candidacy: Admission to candidacy shall not take place until the student shall have shown aptitude during a semester or quarter of residence to accomplish work of graduate character.

D. Course Requirement: The candidate shall have completed twenty-four to thirty hours of graduate work in course, with a grade of 80% (the conventional "B" grade). At least one-half of the courses included in the student's program should be of the class designated "Primarily for Graduates."

E. Majors and Minors: The major field shall be elected comprising as to courses approximately two-thirds of the work, and a minor—within the department or in allied departments—of approximately one-third of the work. The two shall be related.

F. Thesis: A thesis shall be required of every candidate. In case the course requirement for the degree is that of thirty semester hours, a credit for the thesis of from three semester hours to six semester hours may be granted.

G. Foreign Language: A reading knowledge of at least one foreign language shall be required except in the case of certain professional degrees.

H. Transferred Credit: A credit obtained in a different, but recognized institution, not exceeding six semester hours, may be transferred and credited

the Master's degree, provided that the work was of graduate character and provided that acceptance of the transferred credit does not reduce the minimum residence period of one academic year.

Minimum Residence: A residence of at least one academic year or its full equivalent in summer sessions is required.

Comprehensive Examinations: A comprehensive written and/or oral examination shall be passed by the candidate covering at least the major field and the thesis.

Credits by Correspondence or Extension Study: No credits toward graduate degrees may be obtained by Correspondence or Extension Study.

Time Limit: Work taken more than six years before the date at which the master's degree is expected may not be used to count for credit toward the degree.

Administration of Degree: All graduate degrees should be administered by the Graduate School.

II. Qualitative Standards

Preparation of Institution

1. An institution should decide whether or not it should and can undertake and support graduate work as a serious enterprise. A decision to offer graduate work calls for curricula and resources over and above those provided for the undergraduate college. No scheme of fifth year work made up wholly or chiefly of further undergraduate courses should be regarded as graduate.

2. An institution should know that in faculty and equipment the costs should be progressively cumulative.

3. That a faculty in at least five distinct fields should be provided and that a respectable graduate major in each should be set up, having for each adequate faculty, courses, library, and laboratories, should be assumed.

4. That the relations of graduate student and graduate instructor are of a peculiarly personal and intimate nature and graduate instruction requires so much time and so many conferences that the instructor should be freed of the burden of full-time undergraduate teaching, should be evident.

5. It should also be recognized by all persons interested in education that the great work of the college is worth the whole time of an institution without the resources in men and materials mentioned above. No institution and no set of institutions should be allowed to monopolize the investigation and verification of truth; yet it is equally obvious that the seriousness of research and inquiry into the materials of knowledge requires a special order of ability and extraordinary facilities.

6. The institution should observe in graduate work the ideal of excellence as a rule of practice. It is realized that in the last analysis the standards of the Master's degree rest in the hands of the teachers in the various fields of specialization. It is all-important, therefore, that they entertain this ideal and be supported and encouraged in adhering to it.

7. The Master's degree should be a research degree in that the candidate must demonstrate his mastery of research technique in his major subject. Ordinarily, this would be made in the thesis and in seminars.

8. The library, however large or small, should have, or secure by purchase or loans, for the person seeking the degree a sufficient amount of source materials for the student to make a respectable beginning in investigation of a project or of a division of a major field. Such a library should be available to the interested undergraduate, but it should be considered indispensable for the graduate student.

9. Work done in the summer session should be equivalent to that of the regular session.

10. Faculty rewards in promotion and recognition should come from research achievements and good teaching.

B. Preparation of the Student

1. An adequate undergraduate training with the bachelor's degree and a major in the field in which he proposes to specialize as a graduate student.

2. A time of novitiate, during which he demonstrates an ability to undertake study. Then, only, admission to candidacy.

3. A foreign language equipment of service in the use of research materials of the major subject or as evidence of scholarly and cultural interests.

C. Preparation of the Faculty

1. An avowed interest in graduate instruction.

2. Research performance, to the end that instruction be accomplished by example as well as precept.

3. Experience in teaching advanced subjects. Admission to the graduate faculty or permission to teach graduate courses to be recognition of excellence in that work.

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

I. Quantitative and Procedural Standards

A. Admission

The admission to the graduate school of possible and prospective candidates should be governed in a formal sense by the same minimum standards as candidates for the Master's degree, namely, the possession by the applicant of a Bachelor's degree from a recognized institution and the presenta-

a of a transcript showing a sufficient undergraduate preparation for advanced work in both major and minor fields. The undergraduate preparation should be broad enough to provide an adequate foundation for graduate work. This adequate preparation should be attested not only by the transcript of formal courses and credits, but this evidence should be supplemented by an acceptable report of the Graduate Record Examination. Major departments should be allowed and encouraged to require special qualifying examinations or tests of their own for their information and guidance, as well as for a basis of their recommendations for the admission of students to graduate school.

Should the Prospective Candidate for the Doctor's Degree take the Master's Degree?

Departmental situations and attitudes in reference to this matter may reasonably differ, but we deem the benefits of a Master's degree as a form of work preliminary to the Doctor's degree—in case the institution in which the student is enrolled demands a research Master's degree—to be of such significance in the experience of a doctoral candidate that in principle we commend it. The performances of students in their progress toward the Master's degree should be indices to the counseling afforded by faculty committees and directors who have in charge the guidance of applicants for candidacy for the Doctor's degree. The courses of study in pursuance of candidacy for the Master's degree may, if properly planned, be applied in partial fulfillment of requirements for the Doctor's degree.

The First Two Years of Graduate Study.

These studies should be planned by a committee appointed by the dean of the graduate school or by the departmental committee on graduate instruction of the major department. This plan should aim at giving the student a mastery of the major field; and, in case a minor is required, the plan should have enabled the student to have made a sufficient progress in satisfaction of that requirement as to keep the program as a whole in balance. During these two years, the student with faculty advice should have selected a topic for the dissertation and should have made a sufficient exploration in the bibliography and materials of the subject to be able to demonstrate the feasibility of the project.

Course Requirements

Quantitative course requirements should not be enacted for the major field; the aim of the doctoral program should be to afford instruction and guidance leading to a mastery of this field. Independent study on the part of the student is essential to every doctoral candidacy. At the same time, formal course work is of indisputable value; it reduces the labor of the student; it should bring the student into scholarly relationship with masters of the field; it should demonstrate how accepted knowledge of a subject is evidentially sup-

ported. When the minor is required—which is a supporting subject, selected and constructed for precise purposes, and which is composed of courses—a specific course requirement is proper.

E. Major and Minor

A defined major and a minor or minors should be required. It should be the responsibility and obligation of departments established within the graduate school to define the fields from which majors may be offered within their respective areas of instruction. The general content and scope of the majors should be indicated. The proposals of these majors should be subject to the confirmation of the graduate school. This establishment of graduate curricula should be a collaborative work and should make for coöperative understanding and administrative efficiency. It is understood that in this way the area of the major will be mapped and that the courses of instruction necessary and proper to it will be indicated. It is to be understood that the limits and scope of the majors so defined are subject to expansion to satisfy the interests of students; but the majors should be so thoughtfully framed and reframed that contraction of the limits and scope should not be permitted. The unswerving maintenance of the integrity of the major is to be commended. Nothing in the foregoing is to be interpreted as opposition to interdepartmental majors. In the construction of majors, departments and graduate schools should avoid the diffuseness that would prevent specialization and the compression that would cause over-specialization. The minor courses should be selected within a related but distinct field. If minor courses from more than one department are proposed, the selection of these courses should be subject to the approval of the graduate school.

F. The Requirement of Foreign Languages.

During the first two graduate years and preferably during the first year the prospective candidate for the doctor's degree must have satisfied the requirement of a reading knowledge of two modern foreign languages. These languages are thought of as instruments of research and as a means of affording continuing access to the materials and literature of foreign cultures and their use in these relationships should be exercised as a matter of common practice. They are not considered as "hurdles" in an academic obstacle race. This reading knowledge should have been tested in adequate examinations by the pertinent language departments or by a foreign language committee; these examinations should test the ability of the student to read selected passages from the literature of the major subject and should in themselves be a research experience. The French and German languages are endorsed as those to be offered in satisfaction of this requirement. With the approval of the graduate school, the department of the major may, however, on the grounds of greater pertinence to the student's interests and program of study, recommend any modern foreign language as a substitute for one of

em, but approval of such a substitution rests with the graduate school. The department of the major may require as being necessary and proper other language or other languages in addition to the two required by the graduate school. All language requirements must have been satisfied prior to the preliminary or qualifying examination and prior to admission to candidacy for the degree.

The Preliminary or Qualifying Examination.

At least one academic year prior to the time when the degree is expected to be conferred, and not earlier than the accomplishment of two full years of graduate work, the student must undertake the preliminary or qualifying examination. On the basis of this examination the student is to be recommended or not for admission to candidacy. This examination should be designed to fulfill several purposes. The examining committee should inquire into the feasibility of the dissertation project to give it the authoritative grounds on which to recommend acceptance or rejection; the examination should cover subjects and courses of both major and minor fields and should be a rigid test of the student's scholarly competence and knowledge; the examination should be an inquiry of the student's mastery of bibliography and of the student's powers of bibliographical criticism; the examination should give particular attention to subjects or courses taken in other institutions for which transferred credit is proposed; the examination should afford the examiners the basis for constructive recommendations as to the subsequent program of studies to be undertaken by the student. In case the student passes this examination, and in case of the fulfillment of all other conditions, the examiners should recommend to the graduate school admission to candidacy. Credit for the preliminary examination should not be transferable.

Admission to Candidacy.

The formal act of admission to candidacy should be that of the graduate school. This should be a serious act of responsibility, and the administrative authorities of the graduate school should be able to attest to the fulfillment of all conditions attached to the act of admission.

Transfer of Credit.

Credit for work accomplished in recognized institutions is transferable or not, according to each institution's policy. A liberal policy, taking into account the division of labor among institutions, whether that division of labor is the result of fact and accident or the result of a deliberate and coöperative provision to that effect, would be to transfer pertinent work. Credit for work that might be transferable may be attained before or after admission to candidacy. In either case a definite part of either the preliminary examina-

tion or the final oral examination should be devoted to the testing of the student's mastery of the subjects involved and should be the method of validating such credit.

J. Residence Requirements.

The minimum residence requirement for the Ph.D. degree should be that of three full academic years or their equivalent in shorter units of academic residence. The students should be required to spend at least one full academic year in continuous residence. The institution conferring the degree should require one continuous year of residence. The transfer of work from a recognized graduate school should carry with it the transfer of residence credit. Residence credit, however, may not be transferred unless there is also a transfer of course work. Graduate residence credit may not, therefore, be established in fulfillment of requirements for the Doctor's degree unless the graduate work accomplished in such periods of residence is embodied in the accepted program leading to the Doctor's degree. Nothing in this section is intended to prevent any graduate school from adopting legislation requiring a minimum amount of course work to be accomplished by the candidate in actual residence on the campus of the institution involved.

K. The Dissertation.

A dissertation is required of all candidates. It should be an achievement in research. It is deemed pertinent here to recommend that the dissertation shall be prepared under the direction of a special committee. It should comply with the rules of form prescribed by the graduate school. It is recommended in the spirit of comity and uniformity that such rules of form among institutions should be as nearly identical as possible. The institutions conferring the degree may require the dissertation to be printed for publication or submitted in typewritten form. It is recommended in the spirit of safeguarding the interests of the student in this form of literary property that some form of copyrighting be adopted.

L. Comprehensive Final Examinations.

There should be a final comprehensive oral examination. Institutions may properly require in addition a written examination. The final written examination should be set by the major department or by a special committee appointed by the dean and should cover at least the major subjects. The examination should be a functional part of the educative process and those in charge should guard against a repetition of course examinations. The schedule of the qualifying examination and the final comprehensive should be spaced in time in order that this functional purpose should be served. At least six months in time should separate the qualifying examination from either of the final comprehensive examinations. The final oral examination should be divided into three parts,—a defense of the dis-

tation, and an examination of subject fields of both the major and minor. This examination should be administered by a committee appointed by the dean of the graduate school.

Summary of Quantitative Standards.

- (1) Admission: A baccalaureate degree from a recognized institution; an academic transcript showing adequate preparation for graduate work in a chosen field, supplemented by an acceptable report from the Graduate Record Examination.
- (2) Residence: A minimum of three years of graduate study, at least one of which must have been continuous at the institution conferring the degree.
- (3) Major and minor: A major authorized by the graduate school must be adequately completed although specific course requirements are not stipulated. An authorized minor or minors should be based upon specific course requirements.
- (4) Language requirement: A reading knowledge of two modern foreign languages, one of which must be French or German.
- (5) Preliminary or qualifying examination: This examination should be administered by a faculty committee appointed by the graduate school and should occur one academic year before the date at which the degree is expected.
- (6) Admission to candidacy: This should be the act of the graduate school and should occur only after all conditions attached to such admission have been fulfilled.
- (7) A dissertation.
- (8) Final written and/or oral examinations, in one of which the entire field of study should be covered and in which a defense of the dissertation should be successfully made.

II. Qualitative Standards

Resources of Graduate Instruction.

The institution proposing to embark upon an instructional program leading to the Doctor's degree should decide whether or not it should and can properly undertake and support such a project. In 1935 the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools, with reference to the Master's degree, admonished institutions to a sense of responsibility, educational and budgetary, in their conduct of graduate instruction. It was then stated that "A decision to offer graduate work calls for curricula and resources over and above those provided for the undergraduate college." This statement holds with vastly increased pertinence for the institution proposing to embark upon doctoral instruction. The resources alluded to embrace, of course, the familiar ones of faculty, library, and laboratory; but such well known classes

of resources, even if provided and available, are of themselves by no means sufficient. The faculty must be productive and should have facilities for the expression of their productivity.

The library should not only have book collections, but research materials in all the varied forms which occur in the fields in which the doctorate is offered. The institution should also have laboratories equipped for special experimentation and capable of being adapted to such experimentation. There must be coöperation of the university budgetary authorities, the library administration, the graduate school, and the faculty in this enterprise. No merely introductory support within the institutional budget is sufficient. The institution should be prepared in this top-most reach of scholarship to meet and to anticipate cumulative costs. The graduate school should have an assured and independent budget or the administration of the institution should be sympathetically alert and constantly responsive to its need of financial support.

Your Committee proposes as a general rule of practice that a department should not be authorized to offer work constituting a major of a doctoral program unless there are at least three faculty members of the departmental staff who are properly qualified to supervise doctoral work.

B. Freedom of Teaching and Research.

For a graduate school to become great and of highest usefulness to the community, it must have freedom. With the freedom of teaching and study and the freedom of research, without which graduate work is a fraudulent pretense, go an ever-present duty and responsibility. What is presented as knowledge—whether of fact or theory—should be the truth or what is on evidence believed to be the truth.

C. Separation of Undergraduate and Graduate Instruction in Personnel and Curriculum.

There is a difference of opinion, just as there is wide extremity of difference in practice, with regard to the separation of graduate and undergraduate instruction. Some graduate administrators hold that the separation should be thorough-going and operative and that one of the pressing needs of reform in graduate education in this country is the elimination of undergraduate elements from so-called graduate instruction. The organization of graduate faculty separate from the undergraduate and occupied chiefly in graduate instruction is widely endorsed. On the other hand some educational leaders hold that the beginnings of specialization and the introduction of students to inductive research methods of study may properly begin in the junior-senior years for students in their major fields and for undergraduate candidates for honors. They have maintained that undergraduate as well as graduate instruction receives an advantage from close reciprocal relations arising from a joint professional occupation. Many institutions have

this reason, perhaps, and certainly for budgetary considerations, acted on this idea. Many institutions have what is sometimes called the "middle bracket" division of courses in their curricula, which are open to the registration of "graduates and advanced undergraduates." Some institutions are reported to admit undergraduates of whatever status to their "graduate" courses. There is testimony from many sources that the "middle bracket" courses carrying graduate-degree credit are of uneven and uncertain value from the standpoint of the graduate school. Some teachers are prone to neglect their instruction and to organize the content of their courses according to the educational interests and aptitudes of the majority of their class. If the majority is made up of undergraduate students of average or relatively low aptitude, this policy in instruction is calculated to eliminate or so seriously reduce the graduate element as to raise the question of the acceptability of the course for graduate credit. Some instructors reasonably claim that if instruction is directed in the interests of graduates and organized "for the graduate level," it is too advanced for the undergraduate. Undoubtedly in all too many cases the instructor decides in favor of a scheme of undergraduate instruction. That instructor may endeavor to save the situation by requiring graduate students to prepare an essay or to do "outside reading" not required of the undergraduates. Many think that this is a doubtful expedient and one open to careless administration.

It is perhaps unnecessary to pass judgment upon these divergent opinions so far as they are limited to programs leading to the Master's degree. The existence of this troublesome problem with reference to candidates for the Master's degree was recognized by the Conference of Deans in the adoption of "Quantitative Standard" Four, which reads in part, "At least one of the courses included in the student's program should be of the class designated 'primarily for graduates.' If this problem has a relationship to the Master's degree of a seriousness to evoke the foregoing expression, it would seem to bear peculiarly upon programs leading to the doctorate. Those preparing this report are of the opinion that doctoral programs—that the studies of the last two years of residence—in the major field should be entirely graduate and that the principle of separation should be adopted. This principle should be observed in giving effect to the "Quantitative and Qualitative Standard" Five concerned with "Major and Minor." The committee endorses the idea of the organization of a graduate faculty. This organization should precede the offering of curricula leading to doctor's degrees.

Preparation of Graduate Instructors.

The quality and excellence of graduate instruction, from the standpoint of this report, should be of constant concern to every institution offering graduate work. The selection and conservation of staff, the teaching and

productive power of the graduate faculty, along with the principles and practices governing the selection and retention of students, are bases on which developed the graduate tradition of the institution.

The criteria of judgment of the necessary preparation of the graduate instructor vary among institutions, with some satisfied with the possession by the prospective instructor of the Doctor of Philosophy degree or its equivalent. Probably this criterion is warranted and sufficient in the cases of some individuals. Again, some institutions authorize persons to undertake this type of teaching on the basis of professional experience or academic rank. This, too, may on occasion have had good results; but the authors of this report question and deplore all rules by which graduate instructors are selected automatically in terms of degrees, professional experience, and rank—important as these indices of achievement at times may be. The Committee on Graduate Instruction of the Southern University Conference in its report of 1941 stated: "Interest in and achievement of research and interest in and capacity for research teaching are the real considerations by which a graduate teacher should be judged." Those submitting this report endorse the statement.

The authors of the present report are aware that many divergent conceptions of research have been and perhaps are entertained. No exclusive definition is here attempted nor is thought desirable. The committee feels that, however many and different ideas about research may be held within the Conference, the following might be affirmed in common. Research and training in research are the fundamental justifications of graduate schools and organized educational agencies, and that research is concerned with the discovery of new truth, with the critical examination of the evidential basis of knowledge that is accepted as true or believed to be true, with the correction of error, and with the application of both new and old truth to the use of mankind. The graduate teacher, as a scholar in his own right, should be deeply versed in the history and theory and literature of his subject.

The possession by the person being considered as a possible teacher of graduate subjects of the Doctor's degree and experience in the successful teaching of advanced undergraduate courses are useful qualifications, but they should not be determinative. The basic consideration should be the person's interest in graduate instruction and students and the interest and activity in research. The committee feels that these considerations afford to the institutions of this Conference some constructive criteria for the selection of graduate instructors and that these criteria can be effectively administered. It recommends that the power of such administration be vested, under such checks as may be locally devised, in the graduate school—the dean and the executive council of the school—as the institutional guardians of graduate standards.

The Teaching Load.

In 1941 the Committee on Graduate Instruction of the Southern University Conference reported as its recommendation "that no instructor should be approved for graduate teaching who must carry a load of teaching in excess of nine lecture hours, whether the courses are all graduate or part undergraduate." The committee making this present report unanimously endorses the idea of a moderate teaching load for those giving graduate instruction. In recognition of the fact that some institutions are organized on the "quarter system," wherein the customary course unit may have a schedule of five lecture hours a week, the present committee suggests that no graduate instructor be approved for graduate teaching who carries a load of teaching in excess of ten lecture hours.

The members of this committee join their colleagues who made the earlier report in favoring a lighter load for instructors who are known to be actively engaged in research and for instructors who are devoting under authorization of the graduate school a large amount of time to the direction and guidance of student theses and dissertations. The dean and the council of the graduate school should be authorized to make an administrative appraisal of these services and these appraisals should enter into the computation of teaching service rendered by graduate instructors.

The Quality of Students.

The ideal of excellence—the faith and the hope of the graduate school—when made a rule of practice, carries with it as a complement to good teaching and the possession of graduate resources the obligation to select and admit, to retain and encourage, as student-scholars only those qualified to accomplish work of a genuinely graduate character.

This committee recommends that all graduate schools of this Conference require all students—preferably before or immediately after admission—to take the Graduate Record Examination. Graduate schools are acquainted with the plodding, routine, unimaginative, and noninquisitive type of student, whom graduate work is a task rather than an adventure, with the student who seeks a Doctor's degree solely for purposes of professional advancement and security; and with the student who is a marginal case and who remains in residence with the expectation that after so long a time the faculty will "break down" and "give" the degree. However serviceable such persons may be to the community, it is questioned if the award of a doctoral degree to them is justifiable. Such awards have enlarged the statistics of some institutions, but the practice has brought both institutions and the degree under merited criticism. Without expressing any opinion as to whether or not there are in this country too many holders of the Doctor's degree, as to whether or not the graduate institutions of the United States are engaged in mass production of Ph.D.'s, it is believed that greater care should be

exercised in granting admission to candidacy, that the toleration of mediocre students is all too often the fact, that "soft pedagogy" is practiced in the award of many degrees. The award of a degree to a weak student acts as a demoralizing precedent upon a faculty or department, and the administration of the graduate school should at intervals declare that such precedents have become irrelevant and of no further effect.

After a student's capacity has been fairly tested, in sympathy and with due exercise of patience, and found lacking, that student should be humanely and firmly and effectively discouraged in the attempt to become a doctor.

This matter of the quality of students is associated with the concept of the proper province of the Doctor's degree. There are doubtless some who sincerely believe that this province should have variable boundaries and that the doctorate should be suited to "needs" of the seeker, a degree susceptible of being attained in routine manner after establishing so much residence, after acquiring so many credits, and after the payment of so much tuition. The concept presented in this report is that the province has stabilized boundaries and that the degree is a research degree designed to produce the critical scholar. It is believed that the objective involved is realizable and that the ways and means to it are administrable. This conception rests on the assumption that the "ways and means" are in substantial part the disciplined effort and high endeavor of the student.

The Public Secondary School Looks to the Future*

BY C. S. MCGIVAREN
Principal, Clarksdale High School

I am Scotch by ancestry, inclination, and predestination. As such, I never pride myself on being a practical man. And, as a practical man, I readily perceive that dealing with the future, or in futures, if I may use the word, as it relates to the cotton market, is highly speculative, uncertain, and, at times, down-right hazardous.

Because of my natural caution and my dislike for speculation, I shall make no predictions, submit no original proposals, nor advance any new ones. I do hope to emphasize, or perhaps I should say, re-emphasize, the rather obvious tenets in the belief that we can, by acting and working together, do much to stimulate, to shape and to direct the growth and development of our system of public secondary education.

The ideal public secondary school has been described, its functions and activities carefully defined and outlined, its objectives and its philosophy completely reduced to writing, many times and by many authors. The convergence of opinion which we encounter as we consider these descriptions merely serves to accentuate the acuteness of our problem. Whether we turn to the conservative or to the liberal point of view, we must admit that our present system of secondary education, generally speaking, does not completely meet the needs of society in general, nor of the South in particular.

Being a Southerner, from the deep South, by birth, by education, and by choice of a home for my family, I am naturally concerned—most about the future of that region of the United States embraced by the membership of the Southern Association. Where do we stand in the educational picture of our nation? How well will our boys and girls, yours as well as mine, be equipped to meet the competition of this highly complex technological age? What are we doing to improve the chances of our young people?

Do you find yourself seeking the answers to such questions as these? I find myself asking many times every day. What is your reaction to a statement like this?

Persons are persons, and life is made up of the competition and relationship between them.

That is why education is so important a factor. And that is why it is a crying shame that society should not find some way to see to it that education is available. We don't do it, and here in the South we make the worst failure of all.

An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Commissions on Institutions of Higher Education, Secondary Schools, and Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, December 11, 1946.

The statistics are familiar ones. But not familiar enough! The South spends per pupil in its public schools \$34.29 a year. The rest of the country spends \$74.44.

The average pay for school teachers in the South is a shocking \$917.00 a year. The rest of the Nation pays an average of \$1,602.00. That, too, is shocking, but it at least isn't as shocking as our own figures.

But still, nothing makes me jump with a righteous anger more than to hear a lot of foolish talk about the great old traditions of the past, and the nobility of our heritage, all of which I admire, when I know that the cost of so much misty, fuzzy thinking is responsible for Southern children getting a poorer chance in life than the children of other states. A good, honest heritage is something very valuable to have. It adds strength to backbones in time of testing. But what of the heritage is true? And what false?

I want them to be honest heritages, and not something that has been dreamed up as a sort of stage setting which looks very pretty when, if you push a hole in the scenery and look out at the audience, you will find that it really isn't very pretty.

No person defends the worthy Southern tradition more strongly than I. But I will insist as long as I can that if it is going to cost the Southern people, especially the Southern children of this and the coming generation, a chance to compete for a living, and for a good life, on even terms with the children of the rest of the country, I am going to attack it as long as I am able to do so.

There's a growing number of persons who feel the same.

There just has to be a growing number.

This is an excerpt from a recent editorial by Ralph McGill, Editor of the *Atlanta Constitution*. I commend the entire editorial to you. His supporting statistics are most revealing. Nor is he alone in his opinion. *Time*, *Life*, *Coronet*, *Collier's* have all begun to raise questions in their editorials and articles as to our educational system. The United States Chamber of Commerce published several years ago a most revealing booklet entitled "Education, an Investment in People."

And now recently it has sponsored through its regional officers a series of public meetings where a representative of the U. S. Chamber has presented the facts outlined in this brochure. The National Association of Manufacturers published, "Trends in Education—Industry Relationships." This is a move designed to bring educators and industrial leaders together for a consideration of their mutual problems. This organization adopted this resolution at its 1941 Congress of American Industry:

Be it resolved, that the administration and conduct of public education is an essential public service; that its reasonable financial support constitutes a necessary claim upon an American society to which other public services of basic value should be subordinated.

We find affirmations of faith, statements of doubt, suggestions for betterment in the sermons of our ministers, in the columns of our daily papers, on the lips of our patrons and students, and deep in our own hearts. What can we—no, what must we do about it?

propose three things which those of us who work in the public secondary schools of the South should do, and do as speedily as possible. They are to (1) agree on such basic assumptions as are necessary to provide a common yard-stick; (2) examine honestly our local and state educational systems to determine what must be done; and (3) assume and maintain a position of aggressive leadership in the drive to translate our findings into actualities.

Statements of educational philosophy have been produced in wholesale quantities. The favorite indoor sport of educational experts is the formulation of exact, pedantic statements which purport to delineate each function of the secondary school. We have been criticized often as a profession of impractical dreamers because we have produced so many plans for ideal secondary schools, but have been relatively unsuccessful in getting these plans translated into action. Perhaps some of the criticism is deserved. However, I do not see how one could rightfully expect action which leads inevitably to changes in the folkways to be anywhere near so rapid as the transition from blueprints and specifications to actual pile-driving when a contractor gets the "go ahead" signal from the architects and the owner. We have really done more than we get credit for, but we need concerted action. We must select a starting point and we must, in the main, agree. We cannot get very far until we have done that. We could well accept the four assumptions set forth in "Planning for American Youth," a publication of the Educational Policies Commission, namely:

- Education should be planned for all youth;
- Education should be free;
- Education must be suited to the personal and social needs of the people it serves;
- Education should be continuous.

After hearing Dr. Smithey's "Ten Points for the Improvement of Secondary Education in the South," I would be willing to accept his proposals for use as guide-posts.

Full acceptance of such statement must be followed immediately by a program of action, hence point number 2, "examine honestly our local and state educational systems to determine what should be done." I have not a copy, but the recent *Tennessee Survey* seems to be a case in point. From newspaper accounts it must be detailed and explicit. On both the local and state level we have been guilty many times of translating our needs for additional educational facilities into a simple request for more money. I believe such a program as Dr. Smithey has proposed would take *more* money, I think we would get the money more easily if we could propose at the same time a detailed educational program on either the local or state level, whichever case might be, which, in addition to meeting the needs of our boys

and girls, would also give definite indication of having been efficiently planned to avoid useless waste and duplication (Dr. Smithey's "Regional Vocational Schools," for example). Wouldn't the legislature and the business people of our several states be surprised and pleased if we, the school people, really "took the stump" in behalf of more efficient, non-overlapping transportation systems, and of economical, non-political, free textbook selection and distribution systems, if we may assume that our present systems are not perfect and are susceptible to improvement!

And, while there is certainly nothing original in the proposal, how much farther could we make our dollars go, how many teachers could we re-allocate more effectively in this period of severe teacher shortage, to say nothing of how much more nearly we could approach the ideal of meeting the needs of our youth, if we could accelerate, where practicable, a prudent program of consolidation?

From the standpoint of the local school, continued use of the *Evaluation Criteria* for self-appraisal with emphasis on a program of *action* designed to bring about improvements in all areas of weakness would certainly be wise.

Finally, I say we must assume and maintain a position of aggressive leadership in the drive to translate our ideals and our findings into actualities. We must "strike while the iron is hot" in this matter of teachers' salaries. The public at long last is realizing that teachers are people, and that teachers must eat. Do we want them to get salary increases by union methods, or by reason of our having championed their cause?

We must take the people into our confidence. If we are keeping their schools open by using sub-standard, or incompetent personnel, let us tell them so. I think we might be wiser, in the long run, to close all classrooms for which we cannot find competent teachers. The teacher shortage would immediately become a matter of concern to all patrons. At present many, despite what they read and hear, are lulled into a sense of complacency simply because schools are open as usual. I visited a mathematics classroom in another city recently. Oral drill, involving use of fractions, occupied the class. On three occasions I heard the teacher correct students who said 1 divided by $\frac{1}{2}$ was 2. On each occasion the teacher said the answer was $\frac{1}{2}$. In my opinion these students would be better off without mathematics for this year even though the teacher was "the best that could be found."

We must rebuild, build, or strive to maintain, as the case might be, the professional morale of our faculties. Our teachers are all considering the advisability of changing professions, or at least, of trying to find a more lucrative position. A feeling of being appreciated will do much to hold many of them. Give the teachers a chance to participate in planning. There's no better way to break down opposition and fear of change than to have the entire staff feel that any new development is partially theirs.

We must learn to sell our program. Modern selling methods have proved that people do respond to new ideas when properly presented. We had to incorporate these psychological approaches into our own publicity campaigns. The big advertising agencies have learned to use our psychological people, and to use the results of psychological research, for their own ends. Aren't we rather foolish if we, in turn, do not avail ourselves of the know-how they have developed?

We must insist on doing the best we can in the present even while we plan for the future. I hope we at Clarksdale can expand our guidance program greatly. I'd like to use visual-aids to a far greater degree than we have hitherto, and much more effectively, too. It would please me to feel that we were meeting the needs, vocational and otherwise, of our boys and girls. We'd like to provide work experience, summer camps, greatly expanded health and recreational programs, and we'd like to be able to expand our program sufficiently to make our facilities available to the adults of our community. But I want to be sure that we have the financial means, for I am sure it will cost more, to do all of this, and I don't want to do it at the expense of adequate pay for teachers. Furthermore, I do not want to do this at the expense of our more traditional functions. I want to be sure that our boys and girls can think for themselves; that they can communicate, at least in their own language, with facility, both orally and in writing; that they know enough about mathematics and science to maintain themselves in this technological age; and that they know enough about the history and heritage of this country to insure their zealously protecting the rights and privileges of citizenship and private enterprise.

Today, more than ever before, our nation looks to education for the solution of its gravest ills. The world in turn looks to us. We are the educators—-we might even say we are the investment counsellors—of the nation's greatest wealth. Such a position is a most favorable one, and it is one fraught with responsibility. If we plan wisely and well, if we act unselfishly and courageously, our region and our nation prosper; if we fail, our people suffer.

The Private School Looks to the Future*

By C. R. WILCOX

Headmaster, Darlington School, Rome, Georgia

I should like to express my appreciation for the privilege of addressing the Southern Association. With this true, I wish my subject were being presented by someone more capable of envisaging what the future can and should hold for the private secondary schools. I am afraid some will think I am looking to the past and not to the future. In some respects, perhaps I am. I have written what I shall say, largely, I think for the same reason Gracie Allen gave when asked if she had written her address for a particular occasion, "Why, yes," she replied, "however else could I know when I had finished."

I do not like any of the names that have been applied to our schools—"private," "independent," or "preparatory." The word "private" connotes exclusiveness; "independent" raises the question, "independent of what?" and, "preparatory" has been often shortened to "prep" and repeatedly used for irresponsible, adolescent action.

We usually mean by a private school one that is not supported by public funds but is controlled by individuals or boards not directly answerable to the public—a school in which the authorities have certain freedom of action not usually enjoyed by public institutions. The private schools were originally local institutions that served a limited community. Boarding schools that serve a wider clientele are relatively recent. It might be well to bear in mind that, for a time at least, practically all education in the United States was private. Strange as it seems now, Governor Berkeley early in the seventeenth century, thanked God that in Virginia there were no free schools and no free presses. Toward the middle of the nineteenth century, according to Porter Sargent, there were approximately seven thousand private secondary schools in the United States. A study of the history of the Southern Association will reveal that this Association for some years was sustained almost entirely by the colleges and the private secondary schools.

The strength of the private school has largely been in its freedom from politics, its small classes, better paid teachers, select student body, singleness of aim—most of them have been primarily college preparatory schools—and the ability to determine its own philosophy of education.

The weakness of the private school has largely been in its lack of funds and, in consequence, its inability to enforce the high standards it would like, its limited curriculum, aloofness from the community, non-coöperation with public schools and other private schools, undue influence of the founder.

* An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Commissions on Institutions of Higher Education, Secondary Schools, and Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, December 11, 1946.

and donors to the school, and the fact that many of the schools, most of which have been through necessity, have been private venture schools. The last section is fast disappearing.

Historically, I think everyone will agree that the private school has justified its existence. For many years practically all advances in education have been made through their leadership. They have been the great experimental schools. Are they justifying themselves now? The answer to this question seems to be given in the general report of the *Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards*, page 289: "An examination of the data presented in the rest of this section will indicate that, in general, the private schools ranked higher than the public. This was true on each of the nine areas into which the criteria are divided; it was true on seventy-six of the one hundred individual thermometers summarizing detailed sections of the criteria."

Recently I have been asked the question by a representative of a foundation greatly interested in education, "If you had an appreciable amount of money given to you at Darlington what would you do with it?" I felt replying as the parent of one of our students did years ago. His son has been repeatedly guilty of disciplinary infractions. I told the boy that the next time he came before me I was going to ask his father for permission to give him a whipping. On the very next day, I had to put into effect my threat. I went to the father's office and asked him if he would come out for a few minutes. He was a lumber dealer and we walked down among the stacks of lumber. When we were in entire privacy I said to him, "I want to ask you for permission to give your son a whipping." He looked at me in all seriousness and said, "Thank God, I have been wanting someone to ask me that question for fifteen years."

We shall attempt to answer the question asked in light of conditions in our own school. I could not speak for other schools. That is one reason we have been called independent. We have a beautiful school site of approximately two hundred acres for our campus. We do not need a great amount of more land, though the owning of some adjacent property would be advantageous. I have found very much this same situation exists in many of the private schools I have visited, more than seventy in number in the United States, England, and on the continent. Our buildings are good as they go, but we need badly some additional buildings. However, we have some money in hand with which we can begin this program and are confident that other funds will be added that will enable us to have additional buildings and equipment.

Previously then, the chief concern centers about the type of school we can run if finances would allow it. More than ninety per cent of our graduates have gone to college since the school was founded in 1905, and the same thing is true of many other private schools. One of the main

considerations, therefore, would be adequate college preparation, academic and social.

Who then should go to college—the first-class college? Turn to Dr. Max McConn of Lehigh University for at least a partial answer. He enumerates three main criteria in answering the question:

- (1) The student should have a fairly high degree of bookish aptitude. This quality is determined by an I. Q. of not less than 115; at least normal scores on achievement tests; a minimum reading speed of approximately 250 words a minute; a large, accurate vocabulary; the ability to use reference books (particularly the dictionary); and a relatively high rank in class.
- (2) The student should show an awakened intellectual interest in something. McConn says, "But in any case there seems to be no good reason why any one man or woman should proceed with advanced studies at the college level unless there is at least one subject in which he or she has enjoyed studying and really wants to go on studying it. To me this is axiomatic. If this criterion were at all generally observed, at least one-fourth of the students now enrolled in our colleges and universities would not be there. Wherever else they might be, they would in my opinion be better off."
- (3) The student should possess a fairly high degree of self-mastery and capacity for self-direction. McConn gives some simple qualities that indicate these possessions. The student wakes himself in the morning, manages his allowance with some discretion, chooses his friends wisely, and does his homework promptly and well.

If the private school is primarily college preparatory, then the first obligation of the school is to take only those students who have the natural ability necessary for further academic training and the willingness, under guidance, to follow a rigorous training program in studies and in self-direction.

The next step is to insure a teaching staff that will develop the talents and capacities of the students. There seem to be three outstanding traits that a good teacher should have: fine character, effective personality, and superior teaching ability. Someone has wisely said that the duty of the teacher is to interest, to instruct, and to inspire. This does not miss the answer far.

It should be pointed out that the satisfactory preparatory school teacher is hard to find. He must at least have a few socratic virtues: he must be skilled in questioning; must lead the students, as far as possible, toward finding their own answers; have a sense of humor; be able to puncture false pretense; and love teaching. In addition, he must have iron nerves; he can live with adolescents happily; must be a mental hygienist to help

pupils adjust to the world and to each other with a maximum of effectiveness and happiness; and he must insist that a qualitative, and not simply quantitative, standard be enforced. If you get all of these qualities in the man, you will have a good preparatory school teacher. Of course, if you state in your catalogue that your faculty is composed of such men, you will justify President Eliot's reference to the school catalogue shelf as, "My Library of Fiction." On the faculty, we should want unusually gifted men to head the English, Mathematics, Natural Science, Social Science, Language, and Recreational Departments.

Next will come the question, "What Shall We Teach?" You must bear in mind that we are primarily a college preparatory school. I shall give my answer with some of the reasons for it.

English four units

We believe nearly all schools would concur in this judgment. Two of the three R's are involved in English: Reading and Writing. It has been my experience that if a student has normal intelligence, and a good teacher, he will not get acceptable work from him, it is usually because the student cannot read well. I should want to include, by all means, an expert teacher in reading in our faculty. I should want him first to teach all of our teachers how to join in getting an effective reading program.

Since the primary object of language is to understand what others say and to be understood, in turn, make ourselves understood, it seems advisable to require a great deal of oral and written composition work, in which the use of reference material, particularly of the dictionary, is stressed. A wholesale criticism of our schools could be that the students are not required to do enough careful writing.

President Seymour of Yale raises the perennial question, "What ails the boys?" In justification, he says, "Boys who come to Yale are of the necessary intellectual capacity but are defective in their training in fundamentals. This is shown particularly in their inability to read, write, and speak." President Seymour seems to think, that the knowledge of English and Mathematics fundamentals is very important.

Mathematics four units

Mathematics has been called the common denominator of the sciences. Certainly, we are faced with overwhelming evidence that the knowledge of Mathematics is most desirable and in many cases indispensable. I have made my living most of my school life teaching Mathematics. I do believe the fundamentals, that will allow the students to proceed with maximum benefit in college, can be mastered in less than four years. I will add that we have no difficulty in getting a student to accept this requirement.

Social Science two units

We require two units in Social Science: American History and Bible. I was recently talking with a graduate of M. I. T. He had previously graduated at Andover. He said the best teacher he ever had was a History teacher at Andover. The class had no text-book. Topics covering the different personalities and phases in American History were assigned to the students. They were required to use reference material in making written reports on their assignments to the teacher. They later gave the class an oral report and were subject to the questioning of the teacher and the students on the assigned topics. Each student was responsible for information on all of the assignments. The written reports were available to him. What school would not envy Andover such a teacher?

Bible seems to us to be a *sine qua non* for the educated man. My favorite course in college was Bible under Dr. M. E. Sentell. His philosophy of teaching the subject was to require the student to know the facts of the Bible; then, Dr. Sentell said, the Bible will do its own work. He never engaged in denominational discussion or esoteric interpretations. He required notes to be taken and note-books to be turned in periodically for his inspection.

Science two units

In a recent issue of *Time* one of the leading physicists in America made the statement that it was impossible to teach advanced science well unless the foundation courses had been well taught. He pleaded for good teaching of science for two reasons: that foundation might be laid for advanced work and that the student might be introduced to real scientific method. He was of the opinion that a great deal of our shallow and false thinking was caused by lack of training in scientific method.

Latin two or three units

More than sixty per cent of all the words in our language come directly or indirectly from Latin—a larger proportion of what we call “hard” words. A knowledge of Latin as a basis for other language work, in addition to its use in the professions, is very advantageous.

Modern Language two or three units

It is very desirable to know some modern language other than our own and for the student to begin his work in it before he reaches the college level. We have the mechanical means, through the radio, of speaking to the whole world. We do not have the language facilities, possibly the greatest of all assets towards mutual understanding.

Please bear in mind that we are not advocating this program of studies for all private schools, nor would we wish to be inflexible in our demands that each one of our pupils should take the course outlined. We should

for all of our pupils to be capable of taking it, but for those of good intellectual ability whose talents and interests would be served better by another course, we should like to have enough latitude in the work we offer to meet their needs.

So much for the formal curriculum. The informal is more important in many respects, and calls for superior teachers. A few years ago Dr. Willis Sutton addressed a meeting of the Southern Association of Private Schools. He had been largely instrumental in getting a retirement plan introduced to the Atlanta schools. In the summer prior to his address, Dr. Sutton said he was traveling out West, and that one day, as he was thinking of private schools, it suddenly dawned on him that the retirement plan affected him, also. At that time he had eight more years before his retirement age came. He said most of the summer he spent trying to answer the question, "What eight things shall I try to teach my pupils, outside their regular studies, in my remaining eight years." I find myself in exactly the same position as Dr. Sutton was then. I have eight more years to go before retirement. I do not remember the things that he enumerated but I have convictions about some of the things I should like for each of our pupils to know, in addition to their book learning. They are things that most of us learn the hard way.

1. Life is very individualistic. Birth is an individual thing—so is death. Between the two, life's important decisions are individualistic. We cannot escape responsibilities; we must prepare ourselves to face and solve them as well as we can.

2. Man is a social, gregarious animal. We must learn to live together happily and effectively. We are in part our brother's keeper. His health and happiness are inexorably tied up with ours.

3. All worthwhile things rest on certain fundamentals even though in some cases we do not know what these fundamentals are. You cannot learn mathematics if you do not understand addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Dr. Michael Hoke, one of the greatest orthopedic surgeons the South has produced, said, "The best orthopedists have commanded a detailed knowledge of anatomy with the skill of a good carpenter." 4. Great Teacher boiled down the Commandments to two: love of God, love of fellowman.

5. There is no excellence without labor. Man was created so that knowledge and skills are not transmitted from father to son. Each of us must work for what we get. The labor is worthwhile.

6. The earth is good. I would want him to enjoy nature, to try to understand her workings and her art, to feel that things mundane are not only unsordid but may be realized upon for man's welfare and happiness.

7. Man is potentially good. I wish that we understood that honesty, purity, kindness beget these same qualities and that if we will do unto

others as we would have them to do unto us, we will challenge them most effectively to join with us in making a better world.

7. What we should be, we can be. The one-talent man is only required to be faithful in a few things—the ten-talent man must produce other ten. If we live up to our possibilities, we should be happy about it.

8. Above all, I should want him to know the things of the spirit are eternal—other things temporal; that man's chief end is to glorify God and to enjoy Him forever.

If I should write our philosophy, it would be a slight modification of Alstetter's statement in the "Coöperative Study." It would approximate the following. Each pupil is an individual, differing from every other pupil in many important factors: physical, intellectual, social, personal and spiritual; this individuality should be recognized and provided for by the school, particularly through its faculty. The pupil should be an active participant in the learning process and program, not simply a passive absorber of knowledge. The educational program should insure adequate preparation of the student for the highest further training of which he is capable, academically and socially. Outcomes should emphasize personal traits which characterize the good citizen, both as an individual and as a member of society, remembering that growth should be in wisdom, in stature, and in favor with God and man.

If we had the money, we should work toward more excellent departments in five fundamental divisions of a preparatory school. We should begin with English, then Mathematics, and follow with Foreign Languages, Natural Science, and Social Science as quickly as possible. Our first step would be in the addition of some outstanding teachers who would teach by precept and example.

How can all of the private schools take steps to improve themselves? I shall only enumerate a few things that I hold to be of great importance:

- (1) Determine definitely the philosophy of the individual school and live up to it.
- (2) Secure sufficient funds to guarantee outstanding faculty personnel and to maintain high standards of academic work.
- (3) Coöperate better with other private schools, and particularly with the public schools.
- (4) Accept community responsibility to a greater extent.
- (5) Continue our roles as experimental schools.
- (6) Do not make claims that cannot be fulfilled.
- (7) Furnish, as nearly as possible, a situation approaching desirable family life in the school.
- (8) Make spiritual training the corner-stone of our schools.

The Church-Affiliated Secondary School Looks to the Future*

BY JOSEPH B. BASSICH, S. J.,
Loyola University, New Orleans

Schools are not the discoverers of the materials of instruction. For a long period of approximately a thousand years before the middle of the nineteenth century, the schools were religious in character and largely independent, but religion was not a discovery of the schools. Religion was imported from without and incorporated into the schools. About the middle of the fifteenth century, the ancient Latin and Greek classics found their way into the schools, but again they were rediscovered, not within the schools, but by students and men of leisure outside the schools. Similarly, it was only after the impetus given to the importance of physical sciences by the discoveries of the nineteenth century outside the schools, that these physical sciences were introduced into the schools as materials of instruction.

Since the materials of instruction used in the schools at any particular time are drawn from a common source, namely, the common knowledge of the people at that particular time, there will always be much similarity between the various types of the schools of one nation and another, and a greater similarity between schools of the same level within one country. This is the vocational and avocational experiences of the population outside the schools which actually determine the materials of instruction within the schools. This does not seem to contradict the theory of many modern educators that the curriculum of the schools should be adapted to the needs of the students. Practically, the needs of the students have a close relation to acquaintance with the activities of the adult life of the times. We expect to find and we do find that the public secondary schools, the private secondary schools, and the church-affiliated secondary schools have many features in common. This is probably most noticeable in the similarity of the subjects offered in the various curricula of these three types of schools. This is desirable because of the frequency of transfer of students from one school to another, and, also, because the students of all these schools are preparing for membership in the same society, albeit with different tasks in that society.

In spite of the likeness between one type of school and another, there will always be some differences in the subjects offered and in the emphasis upon

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subjects. The natural resources, the marketing facilities, the transportation advantages, the occupational activities, and other factors of a locality rightly affect the curricula of the schools. Urban and rural education may be similar but not identical. Some schools place the emphasis on vocational subjects; others on the liberal and cultural subjects; while still others stress mathematics and the natural sciences. Our largest schools will, of course, offer all these subjects and permit students to take them in varying degrees and to place the emphasis where they will.

It should occasion no surprise, therefore, to find that there are some differences between the church-affiliated schools and the lay schools, placing in the latter class the public schools and those private schools which have no church affiliation. It is not impossible but it is difficult for lay schools to teach religion. It is not impossible, first, because there is much that both the Jewish and all the Christian religions hold in common. However, people who profess a religion in good faith do not wish to have their children taught that religion by a person of a different denomination. It is not impossible, second, because some of the lay schools assign definite hours and definite classrooms for the teaching of religion, and invite the rabbis and priests and ministers of all local denominations to come to the schools and to teach religion. Even under this procedure some difficulty has been encountered because some do not wish to take upon themselves the burden of teaching in the schools and object to others doing so. On the other hand, it is not difficult for the church-affiliated schools to teach the religion of the church to which they are affiliated. It is assumed by all that these schools exist for the purpose of teaching all the common secondary school subjects, including religion, which for so many centuries was looked upon as an essential subject in both the religious and the lay schools.

The administrators of all the church-related schools, Jewish, Catholic and Protestant, believe in a necessary Being, an Infinite Being who is the Creator of all finite beings. They believe that all the rational creatures of the Infinite Being have an obligation to recognize and to profess the excellence of their Creator and their dependence upon Him. They believe that the Creator, in his infinite wisdom has seen fit to teach his rational creatures, the Jews admitting the immediate communications of God to our first parents and the messages sent to the Jewish people by Moses and the prophets, the Christians accepting both these and the teachings of Jesus Christ and his apostles as the authentic word of God.

Members of the churches believe that since God in his infinite goodness has seen fit to teach us, we, as his creatures, are obliged by the natural law to accept his teaching. This is reasonable, since God because of his omniscience knows all truth and cannot err, and because of his goodness will not deceive or teach error. We are, therefore, not free to reject divine revelation. Once we know with certainty that there has been divine re-

ation, we are obliged to accept it, because we cannot be indifferent to those things which are necessary to our salvation.

Children have a right to be taught those things which are necessary for their temporal and eternal welfare. A corresponding obligation rests upon their parents, upon teachers who stand in the place of parents, and, of course, upon rabbis, priests, and ministers to teach children the subject-matter of divine revelation, belief in which is necessary to salvation. Hence we read in Isaiah, Chapter 38: "The word of the Lord came to Isaiah, saying: . . . thy father shall make thy truth known to the children." Again in the Gospel according to St. Mark, Chapter 16, we read: "Preach the gospel to every creature. He that believeth and is baptized shall be saved; but he that believeth not shall be condemned." This teaching was not new. It was in accord with the prophecy made six hundred years earlier by Habakkuk for he says in Chapter 2: "The Lord answered me and said: . . . Behold, I am doing a new thing, now it shall spring forth; I will not withhold myself, thou shalt see a new thing, and thou shalt not believe it, for I will do a new thing, and thou shalt see it, and thou shalt not believe it." St. Paul under the inspiration of God says the same in his epistle to the Hebrews, Chapter 10: "My just man liveth by faith, but if he withdraw himself, he shall not please my soul. . . . Without faith it is impossible to please God. For he that cometh to God must believe that he is and is a rewarder to them that seek him."

Dedicated church members take this obligation seriously. Parents do so with their children their religion at home during the preschool age. But because the content of revealed religion is vast, they wish the teaching of it continued in the schools. Some religious truths are so simple that they are easily grasped by the mind of a child. Others are so difficult that they tax the mind of even the educated adult. Between these two extremes, there is a great wealth of material which can be distributed progressively into various years of every educational level. Religion is thus well adapted to use as material of instruction in the schools. In some of the church-affiliated schools, religion is taught in every year of the secondary school. Graduates of such schools generally graduate or pass on to the next level of education with a firm grasp upon revealed religion as contained in the Bible and in the traditions of their respective faiths. They have been taught that "In the beginning God created heaven and earth," as we read in Genesis; and that "By faith we understand that the world was framed by the word of God; that from invisible things visible things might be made," as we read in St. Paul's epistle to the Hebrews. The church-affiliated secondary schools looking to the future will continue to send forth their graduates to take up their various occupations in the world or to go to the institutions of higher learning for further preparation for those occupations, armed against rampant atheism and materialism. There is probably no one in this audience who will dare to say that we have too much religion in this country. All will affirm that we have not enough, especially in view

of the fact that if there be one power in this world which recognizes the rights of man and demands that these rights be respected that one power is religion. If disregard of these rights becomes general in our country, our democratic form of government will be in danger.

It is probable that the church-affiliated secondary schools will continue to give a prominent place in their curricula to liberal subjects, especially to foreign languages, both ancient and modern. The administrators of these schools still believe in formal discipline. They are convinced that modern secondary school subjects are more suitable for the training of the mind than the ancient languages, especially the Latin and the Greek. Their opinion is based on the fact that these languages are highly inflected and are, therefore, adapted to the exact expression of various shades of meaning by specific forms. Students are forced to reflect and to use discrimination in the selection of the proper form to express accurately the idea which they have in mind. Secondly, there is an etymological advantage in the study of Latin because some of the modern languages are radically Latin. Thirdly, the scientific terms of all the sciences and of the professions are in Latin and Greek, and even a limited knowledge of these two ancient languages is a considerable help to the student. Fourthly, a knowledge of Latin and Greek opens up two noble literatures to the advanced student. The administrators of the church schools are partial, also, to the modern foreign languages. The knowledge of one or more of them is an accomplishment and a useful one, for it aids the student sociologically by giving him an interest in a foreign country and a sympathy with its people, while at the same time it opens what to him becomes a new literature and a new culture. Furthermore, educators in the church schools do not wish to see the scholars of our country to be inferior to those of European or Ibero-American countries, in which almost every educated person speaks at least one foreign language. I remember that during the first World War the study of German was stopped in most of the schools of our country. In the World War just concluded, the policy of the War Department was just the opposite. Knowing the advantage of understanding the languages of both friendly and enemy countries, and foreseeing the need of the knowledge of the languages of the foreign countries to be occupied after the War, the War Department selected draftees and volunteers who had already mastered one or more foreign languages and sent them to universities in which they might perfect themselves in those languages which they already knew and acquire the knowledge of others. For example, in the educational system in which we have the honor of being employed, one student who knew Latin and Greek and French was told that he would have to learn Japanese; another who knew Latin and Syrian was sent to a university to study Sanskrit. There is an evident advantage in knowing the enemy's languages. After the first World War, a Frenchman said to me: "*Je voudrais bien que tous*

Francais parlent Allemand, mais qu'aucun Allemand parle Francais." I wish that every Frenchman spoke German, but that no German spoke French.") The secret code of the Japanese could never have been broken there were no Americans nor Englishmen who spoke Japanese.

I have nothing to add to what has been said by the two previous speakers but English and the natural sciences. The students in our church schools must take English in every year of the secondary school. In each of our schools at least one and in many of them two or three courses in the natural sciences are offered. Students must take at least one year of science. If they elect a scientific curriculum, they must take two years of science. I consider that the course in mathematics in the church schools has been exceptionally strong. In most of them a student can, if he wishes, secure four units in mathematics. If he chooses a scientific curriculum, he is obliged to take four years of mathematics. Our schools will, of course, continue this program. I do not look for any appreciable change in the curriculum of the secondary school because of the recent discoveries in atomic energy. In the first-year courses in general science, in physics, and in chemistry, atomic energy, because of its advanced nature, will scarcely be mentioned. It will find its way into college either as a specific course or as a topic in some course of physics within a year or two.

For several years past, our country has been the battlefield of a war between industry and labor. Each party to this war seems to think that it has the right on its side. We, who are not immediately engaged in the struggle, can probably give a better judgment in the case than either of the two parties at war. We shall probably judge that both parties are partly right and partly wrong. On the basis of good principles, we schoolmen can probably discover with a high degree of accuracy in what way each of the contestants is right and each wrong. Mr. Chairman, students respect their principals and their teachers. In fact long after they have left school they still have confidence and respect and even reverence for those at whose feet they sat in the classrooms. In the present critical situation, we should take fair advantage of our position for the benefit of our former children who are now adults on both sides of this dangerous strife. There is abundant reason why each of us should in his own locality give utterance to his valued opinion and advise these grown children in public addresses, in radio talks, in the public press. These people are all rational beings whose intellects are open to valid arguments. They can certainly cherish the hope that in spite of the wrongs which each may have suffered, in spite of the prejudices which they bear, they will still choose a course which will lead to social peace.

But that is not all. Medicine and dentistry are today occupied in research to prevent disease as well as to cure it. Why should we not imitate them by an endeavor to prevent social ills as well as to cure them! Why

should we not instruct the millions of students who pass through our schools in principles calculated to prevent or at least reduce the incidence of social problems! To this end the colleges have within the past fifty years introduced into their curricula strong courses in sociology and political science, but those courses do not reach the masses. In normal times for one million students in the college there are seven millions in the secondary schools and twenty-two millions in the elementary school. Many of those responsible for the present industry-labor situation have never enrolled in college.

Looking to the future, can we not endeavor to ameliorate the situation by offering in the secondary school a one-year course in industrial and labor relations which will furnish students with correct information concerning their rights and their obligations towards their fellowmen! One may say that the church affiliated schools already have such courses, for such information must be given in courses in religion. I answer that the church schools are taking care of this matter in a general way, but not in the specific and scientific way of a regular course of study. The clergies are expected to be well informed in religion and in philosophy in general and ethics in particular, all of which subjects deal with the rights and mutual obligations of men. The clergy are familiar with the enlightening statements on social problems made by individual churchmen high in authority and by groups of well informed churchmen. Clergymen are expected to know the opinions of scholarly professors and other authorities on sociology, political science, and kindred subjects. Since this is the case, it would seem that the church-affiliated secondary schools should pioneer in the introduction of a course in industrial and labor relations.

Some administrators of church schools think that the course mentioned above should be expanded or diluted so as to include some treatment of other intellectual, social, political, philosophical, and religious problems of life. Other administrators are of the opinion that the curricula of church-related schools should be more pointed towards the training of character so that religious and secular knowledge may not be barren but rather productive of a self-control which may make each student a willing subject of the law of God and of the law of the land.

There is unfavorable criticism of some of the church-affiliated schools for their failure to use to a greater extent the most modern visual aids especially the motion picture. It is to be hoped that such schools will study the possibilities in this phase of teaching for the improvement of instruction. Some critics think that certain church schools have weak programs of physical training. If this criticism be true, it may be well for the administrators of such schools to recall that to neglect the training of the physical capacities of their students is to act contrary to a long tradition in church-affiliated schools.

ne war has afforded us an opportunity for evaluating the education
arted to students in church-affiliated secondary schools. The results
cattered observation are very gratifying. Graduates who took the
e and the V-12 examinations reported that they found themselves well
pared for them. Although no formal study has been made, results
a to indicate that a disproportionately large number of the graduates
ur schools passed them successfully. Furthermore, indications are that
type of education, characteristically religious and humanistic with a
rous admixture of mathematics and natural science, has offered a
l training in respect for authority and adaptability to military disci-
e. It has afforded a very satisfactory preparation for specialized train-
n military science. It has furnished our students with an abundance
eas and images, the contemplation of which has been their only enter-
ment during many long hours of leisure and of waiting in the camps,
ard trains and ships, and in the foxholes on the islands of the Pacific.
type of education given in the church school and the courses of study
h constitute it have been proven to be satisfactory in our times. It is
probable that they will become obsolete, but if they do, they will be
ified; if advisable, they will be discarded. If new and worthier subjects
and popular demand makes it imperative that they be given a place
he secondary curriculum, they will not be excluded by the church-
ed school.

Summary of Third Southern Library Planning Conference on Training for School Librarianship

NOVEMBER 13-19, 1946

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

Sponsor: Library Committee, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and George Peabody College for Teachers under a Grant from the General Education Board.

- I. Program.
- II. Personnel.
- III. Recommendations and Resolutions.
- IV. Exhibits:
 - A. Revised Southern Association Tentative Standards for Training School Library Service.
 - B. Annotations for Courses in Minimum 18 Semester Hour Program
 - C. Outlines of Course Content for Areas A, B, and C.
 - D. Minimum Bibliography of School Library Materials Suggested for Institutions Training School Librarians.

PROGRAM

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 13, 1946

- I. *General Session*—10:00-11:30 A. M.—J. Henry Highsmith, President
 - A. Welcome—Dr. Henry H. Hill, President, Peabody College.
 - B. Review of Earlier Southern Library Planning Conferences—J. Henry Highsmith.
 - C. Agenda—Nancy Hoyle.
 - D. Committee Assignments, Schedule, Introduction of Conference Members, Local Announcements—Dr. Highsmith, Miss Cundiff and Mr. Vance.
- II. *Committee Meetings*—1:00-4:00 P. M.
 - Area A—Selection and Use of Library Resources
Chairman: Mrs. Mary Peacock Douglas

Area B—Organization and Administration

Chairman: Sara Krentzman

Area C—Interpretation of Library Services

Chairman: Fannie Schmitt

. *Steering Committee*—7:30-8:30 P. M.

Dr. Highsmith, Committee Chairmen, Consultants

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1946

. *Committee Meetings* (A, B, and C)—9:00-11:30 A. M.; 1:00-4:00 P. M.. *Steering Committee*—7:30-8:30 P. M.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 15, 1946

. *Committee Meetings* (A, B, C, and Southern Association Library Committee) 9:00-11:30 A. M.; 1:00-4:00 P. M.. *Peabody Library School Tea*—4:00-5:30 P. M.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 16, 1946

. *General Session*—9:00-11:30 A. M.—Reports of Progress by Committees. *Southern Association Library Committee*—11:30 A. M.-1:00 P. M.. *Committee Meetings* (A, B, and C)—1:00-4:00 P. M.. *State School Library Supervisors*—5:00-7:30 P. M.. *Southern Association Library Committee*—7:30-9:00 P. M.

SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1946

. 2:00-4:00 P. M.—Drives around Nashville and to "Hermitage" arranged by Peabody Faculty.

. 7:30-9:00 P. M.—General Session.

SUNDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1946

. *Committee Meetings* (A, B, and C)—9:00-11:30 A. M.. *Final Report* (Committee A)—1:00-4:00 P. M.. *Final Report* (Committee B)—8:00-10:00 P. M.

MONDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1946—9:00 A. M.-1:30 P. M.

. *Final Report* (Committee C). *Conference Summary, Recommendations, and Resolutions*

PERSONNEL

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION LIBRARY COMMITTEE *

Chairman:

J. Henry Highsmith, Director
 Division of Instructional Service
 State Department of Public Instruction
 Raleigh, N. C.

Members:

W. H. Shaw
 Superintendent of Schools
 Columbus, Ga.

Dr. Frances Lander Spain
 Librarian and Head, Department of Librarian
 Science
 Winthrop College
 Rock Hill, S. C.

W. L. Spencer
 Supervisor of Instruction
 State Department of Education
 Montgomery, Alabama

C. H. Stone, Librarian
 Mercer University
 Macon, Ga.

R. R. Vance, Director
 Division of High Schools
 State Department of Education
 Nashville, Tenn.

STATE DIRECTORS OF LIBRARY EXTENSION AGENCIES

Alabama

Mrs. Lois Rainer Green, Director (B)
 Public Library Service Division of Alabama
 Montgomery, Ala.

Georgia

Sarah Jones, Asst. Director (B)
 Textbook and Library Division
 State Department of Education
 Atlanta, Ga.

* Letter following name indicates committee affiliation, as follows:

(A) Selection and Use of Library Resources.

(B) Organization and Administration.

(C) Interpretation of Library Committee.

Note: Consultants and Library Committee members worked with all committees.

Tennessee Martha Parks, Director (A)
 Division of Libraries
 State Department of Education
 Nashville, Tenn.

Virginia Ernestine Grafton
 Head, Extension Division
 Virginia State Library
 Richmond, Va.

STATE SCHOOL LIBRARY SUPERVISORS

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 School Libraries Consultant
 State Department of Education
 Montgomery, Ala.

Florida Sara Malcolm Krentzman (B)
 Consultant in Library Service
 State Department of Education and
 Asst. Director, Division of Library Service
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Louisiana Sue Hefley (A)
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Mississippi Catherine Clark (A)
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North Carolina Mrs. Mary Peacock Douglas (A)
 State School Library Adviser
 State Department of Public Instruction
 Raleigh, N. C.

<i>South Carolina</i>	Nancy Jane Day (A) Supervisor, School Library Division State Department of Education Columbia, S. C.
<i>Tennessee</i>	Martha Parks, Director (A) Division of Libraries State Department of Education Nashville, Tenn. Louise Meredith Field Supervisor of School Libraries State Department of Education Nashville, Tenn.
<i>Texas</i>	Mattie Ruth Moore (C) Director of School Libraries State Department of Education Austin, Texas
<i>Virginia</i>	C. W. Dickerson, Jr. (B) Director, School Libraries and Textbooks State Department of Education Richmond, Va.

REPRESENTATIVES OF LIBRARY TRAINING AGENCIES

<i>Alabama</i>	Mrs. Pauline M. Foster, Head (C) Department of School Library Service College of Education University of Alabama University, Alabama
<i>Florida</i>	Agnes Gregory (A) Division of Library Service Florida State College for Women Tallahassee, Fla.
<i>Georgia</i>	Evelyn Jackson (C) Emory University Library School Emory, Ga.

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Forrest Murphy, Dean
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University of Mississippi
University, Miss.

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS STANDARDS FOR TRAINING IN SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE *

(Effective as of the beginning of the school year, 1948-1949)

I. GENERAL STATEMENT

Standards for the library of the institution offering instruction in school library service.

1. The library must be adequately staffed with professional personnel. It must be adequately financed and properly organized, with sufficient floor space, shelving, and other necessary equipment.
2. The library must contain at least 25,000 volumes of usable books, exclusive of government documents.
3. There shall be a workable collection of bound and current periodicals, including professional library journals with periodical indexes. The library must subscribe to and receive regularly at least 75 well chosen periodicals listed in the H. W. Wilson Company indexes.

Administration of the program in training for library service.

1. The department of library service shall be organized and administered as a regular department in a college or university approved by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It may be organized as (1) a separate department, (2) as a part of the college or department of education, or (3) a part of the college or department of liberal arts, or (4) a part of the college or university library program. It is recommended that the minimum undergraduate program be coördinated with the college or department of education in order to integrate the program with teacher training.
2. The executive officer in charge of the program of instruction in school library service shall have sufficient authority delegated from the governing body of the institution to administer the program.
3. Secretarial assistance shall be available for keeping adequate personnel and other records.

Laboratory centers: Provision shall be made for adequate laboratory centers for observation and practice in school libraries. High school libraries used as laboratory centers shall meet the Southern Association standards for high school libraries. Elementary school libraries used as laboratory centers should be organized along similar lines. The supervising librarian in any laboratory center shall devote full time to library service and should have the qualifications and professional status of other supervising teachers.

The Library Committee of the Southern Association recognizes accreditation by American Library Association.

II. TEACHING STAFF

- A. Qualifications: 1. Teachers in the department of library service shall have five years of training including 30 semester hours of library science. Training in education comparable to that required of teachers serving in the public schools of the state in which the institution is located is essential for teachers in the minimum program.
2. It is recommended that teachers shall have had successful experience both in teaching and in the field of library instruction for which they are responsible.
- B. Number of teachers: 1. In the minimum basic program there shall be at least one qualified full-time faculty member whose responsibilities may include in addition to teaching Library Service, duties in the following areas: (1) administration of the program; (2) instruction in library education to librarians, teachers, supervisors, and administrators. There shall be, in addition, the equivalent of one full-time teacher in an institution offering 30 semester hours. The number of teachers shall be increased as the program expands or as the number of students increases. *
2. Laboratory hours and time for student conferences shall be counted in relation to class hours according to the practice of the institution. Additional responsibilities, such as service in the library, shall be taken into consideration in determining the teaching load. It is suggested that the maximum size of classes be fixed at 30.

III. QUARTERS AND EQUIPMENT

- A. Quarters: 1. The department offering a minimum program shall have adequate classroom and laboratory facilities. Office space sufficient for the staff shall be provided.
2. Additional classroom facilities shall be provided for departments offering more than the minimum program.
- B. Equipment: 1. The laboratory shall be fitted with an adequate number of desks or tables, chairs, and shelving. Typewriters and typewriter tables are necessary since it has become desirable that library service students shall be able to use the typewriter with speed and accuracy. The actual number will depend on the enrollment and should average about one typewriter for every six students. Other equipment should include vertical files, card catalog cases, dictionary stand, magazine racks or shelves, book trucks, display cases, and bulletin boards.
2. Classrooms shall be equipped with tablet-armchairs, tables, or desks sufficient for the enrollment; a blackboard; teacher's desk and chair and adequate shelving.
3. Office equipment shall include a desk for each teacher and stenographer or clerical worker, a vertical file, shelving, supply cabinets, typewriter table or desk.

IV. BOOKS AND RELATED MATERIALS

Books and related materials needed for instructional purposes shall be readily accessible. The professional books and the practice collection shall be housed in the laboratory of the department of library service. The following materials are necessary for a minimum program; they may be a part of the library of the institution.

Books for children	750 titles
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books for young people	750 titles
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The major portion of the books in these collections shall be selected from recent editions of standard books-selection aids.

Reference books	50 titles
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Selection should be made from the reference books included in recent editions of standard book-selection aids.

Related materials: In addition to books, the collection shall include materials such as periodicals, pamphlets, pictures, and other types of audio-visual aids.

Professional books	100 titles
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Professional periodicals	10 titles
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Titles should represent library and educational fields.

The collection shall be kept up to date and in good condition by discarding binding, and making additions at frequent intervals.

V. FINANCIAL STATUS

The budget shall be sufficient to provide an adequate faculty, with salaries comparable to those of other departments. Support for the department shall include, in addition to faculty salaries, compensation for at least half-time clerical assistance in a minimum program, and full-time secretarial assistance in an expanded program.

In establishing the minimum program, it is estimated that there will be an annual expenditure of \$6,000.00 in addition to salaries; a minimum annual budget of \$650.00 will be required for necessary materials, supplies, and travel. The expanded program will require additional initial and annual expenditures.

VI. REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

An applicant for admission to a department of library service must have attained at least junior standing in the institution.

A student record indicating ability to pursue successfully the library service curriculum must be presented.

The applicant shall possess aptitude and personal qualifications for library work in schools.

- D. The ability to type is highly desirable.
- E. No correspondence courses in library service shall be accepted for credit.
- F. Credits may be transferred between Southern Association accredited departments of library service.

VII CURRICULUM FOR A BASIC TRAINING PROGRAM

- A. The twelve semester hour curriculum * shall consist of the following courses:

Books and Related Materials for Children and Young People—6 semester hours.

Administration of School Libraries and Organization of Materials—6 semester hours.

School Library Practice (It is recommended that library practice scheduled in connection with Practice Teaching and credited as Education or provided on a non-credit basis in the 12-semester-hour curriculum.)

- B. The eighteen semester hour curriculum † shall consist of the following courses:

Books and Related Materials for Children and Young People—6 semester hours (Same as in 12-semester-hour curriculum.)

School Library Reference Materials—3 semester hours.

Administration of School Libraries and Organization of Materials—6 semester hours (Same as in 12-semester-hour curriculum.)

School Library Practice—3 semester hours (in the 18-semester-hour curriculum Library Practice may be credited either as library service or suggested above under the 12-semester-hour curriculum).

- C. The thirty semester hour or full year curriculum ‡ shall consist of the following courses:

Books and Related Materials for Children and Young People—6 semester hours. (Same as in 12 and 18 semester hour curricula).

School Library Reference Materials—3 semester hours. (Same as in 12 semester hour curriculum).

*Recommended as a basic program to meet present requirements for librarians in high schools with an enrollment of 300 or fewer students.

†Recommended as the basic undergraduate library service curriculum upon which undergraduate programs may be based. Some institutions may decide to offer additional library service courses on the undergraduate level in order to provide an undergraduate "major" of 24 to 30 semester hours of library service, the length depending upon the practice of the institutions and state certification requirements.

‡Southern Association standards for high school libraries require that every high school with 301 or more students employ a full-time librarian who has completed 30 semester hours of library service without duplication of courses. These library service courses may represent study on either graduate or undergraduate level but must be secured at an institution whose library training program is approved by the Southern Association.

Administration of School Libraries and Organization of Materials—6 semester hours. (Same as in 12 and 18 semester hour curricula).

Classification and Cataloging of Materials—3 semester hours.

School Library Practice—3 semester hours. (Same as in 18 semester hour curriculum).

Suggested Electives—9 semester hours.

Elective courses may be offered to provide opportunities for further exploration in areas such as the history and development of literature for children and young people, reading for adults, reference, backgrounds of library service, library public relations, community library service, library practice. In addition, electives may be courses in liberal arts and education, such as sociology, economics, creative arts, psychology, speech arts, audio-visual education. Such courses should be selected to meet the needs of the individual student.

NOTE

In translating the above into a program on the quarter basis, one semester hour is the equivalent of $1\frac{1}{2}$ quarter hours. That is, areas to which 6 semester hours have been assigned will have 9 quarter hours. For the purpose of scheduling, the 9 quarter hours may be divided into 3 divisions of 3 quarter hours each, 4 and 5 hours or in any other division, according to the practice of the institution.

It is conceivable that a course not suggested above might evolve in one or more areas. Where the amount of credit falls below 3 quarter hours, it is suggested that the material be handled as a unit in a designated course.

EXPLANATION OF COURSES IN MINIMUM PROGRAM FOR TRAINING LIBRARIANS (18-SEMESTER-HOUR PROGRAM)

BOOKS AND RELATED MATERIALS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE 6 Semester Hours

A study of materials and their uses for children and young people from preschool through senior high school age with emphasis on the reading of many books and the examination of all types of printed and audiovisual materials. The use of library for both curricular and leisure needs, building and maintaining the library collection, and methods of guidance in the use of materials receive attention.

SCHOOL LIBRARY REFERENCE MATERIALS: 3 Semester Hours

This course considers the library as an information center, the evaluation of reference materials, general tools, materials in subject fields, the use of the general collection for reference. Attention is given to methods of teaching the use of these materials to pupils.

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND ORGANIZATION OF REFERENCE MATERIALS: 6 Semester Hours

This course is designed to help librarians in training to develop the understandings, attitudes, skills, and information necessary for leadership in a program of library service that will contribute to the realization of educational objectives. It includes study of acquisition, organization, housing, and use of all types of materials of instruction.

SCHOOL LIBRARY PRACTICE: 3 Semester Hours

Library practice in elementary and high school libraries is designed to give the prospective school librarian experience in many aspects of school library service, including organization of materials and their use by teachers and pupils.

BOOKS AND RELATED MATERIALS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE (6 Semester Hours)

In order to meet the needs of the modern school program, the librarian must have a broad knowledge of materials and must develop special skills making them vital. The prospective school librarian should, therefore, acquire familiarity with a large number of books and other library materials and with the sources for selecting and evaluating these items. The program of training should give major emphasis to extensive reading and examination of the materials themselves, for which a large collection with provision for keeping it up-to-date would be required.

Increased interest in the newer forms of materials now available accentuates the necessity for school library collections to include not only books, periodicals, pamphlets, and other familiar media; but also films, filmstrips, recordings, charts, slides, and other audio-visual materials. Therefore, the materials as used in this outline embraces all types of multi-sensory materials useful in an instructional program and in satisfying individual needs and interests.

Materials provided for the course should reflect both the curricular and the leisure needs and interests of individuals and groups. The school librarian on any level needs familiarity with materials of interest to the youngest member of the preschool group and to the most mature member of the senior class of the secondary school. Selection of the basic materials for the course should be made from the major professional aids designed for the age groups indicated and including a wide range of subject areas as well as of reading levels.

The outline suggested for a study of books and related materials for children and young people is designed as a six-semester-hour course. While it may be given as two separate courses of three semester hours each—one with emphasis on materials for children and the other with emphasis on materials for young people—it is recommended as a continuing course in order that a broad understanding and knowledge of many materials and their uses may be acquired without unnecessary duplication of content. In this plan, chief emphasis and the major portion of time should be given to Units IV and V, both of which require extensive reading and examination of books and other library materials. The course in books and related materials for children and young people with college credit value of six semester hours is basic in education for school librarianship and has the same content as any program of training whether it be the twelve-hour program or that of a full year.

Suggested Content

I. The Place of the School Library in the Program of the School

A. Relation to school organization

To function effectively the school library must reflect the co-operative efforts of pupils, teachers, and administrators to the end that it become a

1. Service agency
2. Teaching agency
3. Materials center

Books, periodicals, pamphlets, pictures, recordings, films
and filmstrips, globes, maps, other

4. Reading center

- B. Relation to reading guidance
 - 1. Awareness of curricular needs
 - 2. Provision for books and related materials
 - 3. Motivation for use of materials
 - 4. Recognition of individual differences and interests
 - C. Relation to classroom and other school activities
 - 1. Provision for informational materials
 - 2. Provision for enrichment and appreciation materials
 - D. Relation to out of school activities
 - E. Relation to community resources
 - 1. Awareness of human and material resources
 - 2. Guidance in use
- II. The Reading Needs and Interests as Influenced by
- A. Age, sex, and intelligence
 - B. Sociological needs influenced by the home and family, the school, the community
 - C. Psychological needs for security, affection, recognition, and response, varied experiences
 - D. Physiological needs indicated by general health, handicaps, others
- III. Building and Maintaining the Collection
- Note: Each point taken up in this section applies with equal emphasis to the elementary, junior high, and high school library. Building and maintaining the collection should be the coöperative work of pupils, teachers, administrators, and the librarian.
- A. Standards as they apply to the collection
 - 1. National
 - a. American Library Association as contained in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*
 - b. Coöperative Study of Secondary Schools as contained in *Evaluative Criteria*
 - 2. Regional
 - a. Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
 - b. Other regional standards
 - 3. State
 - a. Local state laws and regulations governing accreditation
 - b. Laws and regulations governing accreditation in other states

B. Factors in selection and evaluation

1. Nature of the school
 - a. Size and type
 - b. Grade groups included; age levels
 - c. Curricular needs
 - d. Amount of money available
2. Existing library collection
 - a. Proportion of material in curricular and personal interest areas
 - b. Suitability for improving pupil tastes
 - c. Quality and usefulness of the material
 - d. Need for duplications
 - e. Replacement policy
 - f. Other available library resources
3. Cultural pattern of the community
 - a. Economic
 - b. Social

C. Aids and tools in selection

1. Standard aids
 - a. Guides, *e. g.*, Eaton. *Reading with Children*
 - b. Catalogs, *e. g.*, *Children's Catalog*, *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*, *Educational Film Guide*
 - c. Indexes, *e. g.*, Rue indexes, Brewton. *Index to Children's Poetry*
 - d. Bibliographies and listings, *e. g.*, those issued by the National Council of Teachers of English and the Association for Childhood Education, Miles. *Recordings for School Use*
 - e. Periodicals, *e. g.*, *Horn Book*, *Subscription Books Bulletin*

D. Background information essential for evaluation and selection

1. Books
 - a. Publishers, editors, editions, and series
 - (1). Nature of material, *e. g.*, special reference, reading textbooks, publishers' editions, picture books, reprints of classics
 - (2). Group purchase plans, *e. g.*, Cadmus books, Junior Literary Guild
 - (3). General considerations
Authority, copyright date, price, format, binding and prebinding
 - b. Authors
 - (1). Qualifications
 - (2). Type and style of writing

- c. Illustrators and illustration
 - (1). Qualification of illustrator
 - (2). Type of illustration, *e. g.*, color plates, line drawings, photographs, diagrams
 - (3). Amount of illustrative material
 - (4). Suitability of illustrative material to text
 - (5). Quality of the artistry
 - (6). Availability, *e. g.*, illustrators whose works are out of print, as Boutet de Monvel
 - (7). Appeal to the user
- d. Award books
 - (1). Historical background of awards
 - (2). Basis of making awards
 - (3). Specific standard yearly awards, *e. g.*, Caldecott, Newbery, Julia Ellsworth Ford, Pacific Northwest, Herald Tribune Spring Book
- 2. Other types of materials
 - a. Sources
 - b. Reliability and reputation
 - c. Specialization
 - d. Artistry
 - e. Scope
 - f. Accessibility
 - g. Bias
 - h. Instructional value

IV. Library Materials and the Curriculum

A. The curriculum

An examination of the state program of instruction and of other representative programs

B. Library materials related to specific subject areas as determined by a study of the curriculum

Note: Criteria, guides, and use of materials should be considered for each subject area. Subject areas such as health education, music appreciation, handicrafts, and other special subjects should be considered as well as the more familiar areas of social studies, science, and literature.

- 1. Criteria of evaluation and selection as applied to subject fields
- 2. Evaluation and selection from recognized aids and tools in subject fields

3. Use of materials in each field in terms of interests, abilities, and needs
 - a. Outstanding materials in each field
 - (1). General collection
 - (2). Reference collection
 - b. Techniques for teaching the use of the materials
4. Methods in guidance in the use of materials
 - a. Teacher-librarian coöperation
 - b. Pupil independence in the use of library resources
 - c. Librarian identification with classroom activities

. Library Materials Meeting Needs and Interests

A. Illustrative examples of interests and needs

1. Everyday life: Home, family, community
2. Personal development: Manners, appearance, ethics, growth experience
3. Pets and other animals
4. Hobbies and crafts
5. Science and its application: World of nature and its laws, machines and inventions
6. Cultural relationships: Other lands—manners, customs, art and literature—minority groups at home and abroad
7. Sports
8. Romance and adventure
9. Choice of vocation
10. Current events

B. Illustrative examples of forms of material

Note: All fields of knowledge and all types of literature should be considered, with the entire library collection serving as laboratory materials for study.

1. Picture books and easy books
2. Fairy stories, traditional and modern
3. Bible stories and other related material
4. Poetry
5. Drama
6. Biography
7. Fiction, *e. g.*, general, historical, mystery, romance
8. Travel and history
9. Science
10. Arts

- C. Points to be considered in studying each form of material
 - 1. Principles of selection and evaluation, including analysis of books and materials in terms of interests, abilities, and needs
 - 2. Aids and other sources of information for selection
 - 3. Outstanding examples of books of each type
 - 4. Examples of other media for each form of material
 - a. Recordings
 - b. Films
 - c. Other pictorial materials
 - 5. Utilization of materials
 - 6. Suitable methods of reading guidance
 - 7. Pertinent sources of information for reference purposes
 - D. Materials for the exceptional reader
 - 1. Non-reader
 - 2. Reader of limited ability
 - 3. Above average reader
 - 4. Reader of limited interest
 - a. Style, *e. g.*, *Nancy Drew*, *Hardy Boys*
 - b. Content, *e. g.*, one type such as comics, detective, sports, love, etc.
- VI. Methods of Guidance in the Use of Library Materials
- A. Instruction in the use of the library
 - B. Storytelling: by individual, by recordings, by films
 - C. Reading aloud: by pupil, by adult
 - D. Sharing reading experience, *e. g.*, oral reports, peep-shows
 - E. Dramatization: spontaneous or unrehearsed, adaptation and production by pupil, school play, puppet shows
 - F. Book lists: prepared by pupil, by teacher, by librarian, by professionals
 - G. Displays: related to current affairs, movies, town theater, special occasions, good books of general interest
 - H. Clubs: sponsored by librarian, by teacher
 - I. Book talks: clubs, classrooms, special interest groups
 - J. Utilization of radio and movies

SCHOOL LIBRARY REFERENCE MATERIALS
(3 Semester Hours)

The purpose of this course is to introduce to prospective school librarians materials most commonly used to answer simpler reference questions, to develop an understanding of the use of all materials in the library collection for meeting informational needs, to prepare for planned instruction to pupils

in the use of books and libraries, and to gain an over-all appreciation of reference service for curricular and individual needs.

In teaching reference materials it is essential to include methods in teaching the use of these materials to pupils. In order to use libraries for reference purposes the pupil will need to know (1) how to locate material in a library, arrangement of a library, card catalog as an index to materials in the library, *Readers' Guide* as an index to periodicals, other indexes; (2) how to locate and use information through library materials: how to use a book, dictionaries, encyclopedias, materials in major subject areas in the curriculum—*e. g.*, arts, social studies, English, science, special interest areas, *etc.*

Attached to this outline is a suggested list of reference material which indicates the scope of this course. Any list of this nature is subject to continuous revision.

I. Nature and Scope of Reference Service in the School Library

A. Approaches to reference service

1. Teacher participation in the reference program
2. Pupil independence in the use of library resources
3. Librarian participation in identifying and meeting reference needs

B. Scope of reference as determined by

1. Needs and interests to be served
 - (a) Curricular (b) Out of School (c) Individual
2. Materials available

II. Examining and Evaluating Reference Materials

A. Aids for selection and evaluation

B. General considerations

1. Authority, *e. g.*, editor, publisher
2. Copyright date
3. Scope
4. Point of view
5. Arrangement
6. Format
7. Price in relation to value
8. Recommendations

C. Specific considerations

1. Suitability, *e. g.*, for pupil, for school program
2. Special features, *e. g.*, bibliographies, illustrations
3. Special fields, *e. g.*, geography
4. Relation to other materials in the field, *e. g.*, can the information be found in more general sources; is there a more useful book on the subject?

III. General Reference Materials

- A. Encyclopedias
- B. Dictionaries
- C. Yearbooks
- D. Bibliographies
- E. Indexes
- F. Biography

IV. Specific Reference Materials in Subject Fields

- A. Subject fields: language arts, social studies, science, health, safety, physical education, home economics, agriculture, industrial arts, industrial education, business education, fine arts, others
- B. Types reference materials: encyclopedias, dictionaries, handbooks, indexes, glossaries, bibliographies, globes, atlases, pictorial albums, anthologies, manuals, field books, periodicals, others

V. Use of the General Collection for Reference Purposes

All material in the library may be used

- A. To answer specific questions
- B. To develop special topics and to meet informational needs arising from
 - 1. Classroom activities, *e. g.*, material about Vikings, the Industrial Revolution
 - 2. Individual and group interests, *e. g.*, how to train a dog, how to build model airplanes

SUGGESTED REFERENCE COLLECTION FOR THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

the especial suitability of each title for elementary (E) or secondary (S) school reference purposes has been indicated.

Tools Primarily for the Librarian

- (S) SUBSCRIPTION BOOKS BULLETIN. American Library Association. Quarterly. \$2.00 per year.
Describes and appraises encyclopedias and other sets of books sold by agents. Began publication 1930.
- 0.7 Boyd, J. E. *et al.* BOOKS, LIBRARIES, AND YOU. Scribner, 1941. \$1.40. A handbook on the use of reference books and the reference resources of the library designed for the high school pupil.
- 0.7 Brown, Z. M. LIBRARY KEY; an aid in using books and libraries, 6th ed. H. W. Wilson, 1945. \$.70.
For both high school and college students, as well as the general reader, this is a valuable first aid in the successful use of the library.
- 0.7 Ingles, May & McCague, A. C. TEACHING THE USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES. 3rd ed. H. W. Wilson, 1940. \$1.80.
Briefly describes various methods that have been used successfully in teaching this subject to elementary, high school, and college students. For the instructor.
- 0.7 Mott, Carolyn. CHILDREN'S BOOK ON HOW TO USE BOOKS AND LIBRARIES. Scribner, 1937. \$1.28.
"Simple guide to the effective use of books and libraries."
For elementary school pupils.
- 5.3 (S) Akers, S. G. SIMPLE LIBRARY CATALOGING, 3rd ed. American Library Association, 1944. \$2.25.
Manual on cataloging and filing.
- 5.3 (S) Sears, M. E. LIST OF SUBJECT HEADINGS FOR SMALL LIBRARIES, 5th ed. rev. H. W. Wilson, 1944. \$2.75.
Subject headings adapted for small libraries. Class numbers and many explanatory notes are included.
- 5.4 (S) Dewey, Melvil. ABRIDGED DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION AND RELATIVE INDEX, 6th ed. rev. Forest Press, 1946 \$4.00.

- 027.8 A.L.A.-N.E.A.-N.C.T.E. Joint Committee. BASIC BOOK COLLECTION FOR HIGH SCHOOLS. American Library Association, 1942. \$2.00.
(S) A basic buying list.
- 027.8 Douglas, M. P. THE TEACHER-LIBRARIAN'S HANDBOOK. American Library Association, 1941. \$1.90.
(E-S) Practical suggestions about the organization and promotion of the school library.
- 027.8 Fargo, L. F. ACTIVITY BOOK FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES. American Library Association, 1938. \$2.50.
(E-S) Actual projects, enterprises, and undertakings related to the library and reading.
- 027.8 Fargo, L. F. ACTIVITY BOOK NO. 2. American Library Association, 1945. \$2.50.
(E-S) Tells how to initiate, carry on, and complete specific activities which center in or hinge upon the library.
- 027.8 Fargo, L. F. LIBRARY IN THE SCHOOL, 3rd ed. American Library Association, 1939. \$3.50. (4th ed. in press)
(S) The school library—its philosophy, organization, and techniques—fully presented.
- 027.8 Gardiner, Jewel and Baisden, L. B. ADMINISTERING LIBRARY SERVICE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. American Library Association, 1941. \$2.25.
(E) Discusses functions, organizational set-up, administration, personnel, and quarters.
- 027.8 National Council of Teachers of English. BOOKS FOR YOU. The Council, 1945. 30 cents each.
(S) Classified and graded reading list for high school students.
- 028.5 A.L.A.-N.E.A.-N.C.T.E. Joint Committee. BASIC BOOK COLLECTION FOR ELEMENTARY GRADES. American Library Association, 1943. \$2.00.
(S) Basic buying list for grades one through eight.
- 028.5 Carpenter, H. M. GATEWAYS TO AMERICAN HISTORY. An Annotated, Graded Bibliography for Slow Learners in the Junior High School. H. W. Wilson, 1942. \$2.25.
(S)
- 028.5 CHILDREN'S CATALOG: a Dictionary Catalog of 4200 Books; 7th ed. rev. H. W. Wilson, 1946. Service basis.
(E)
- 028.5 Kircher, C. J. CHARACTER FORMATION THROUGH BOOKS: a Bibliography; an Application of Bibliotherapy to the Behavior Problems of Childhood, Grades 1-12. Washington, D. C. Catholic University of America, 1944. \$1.00.
(E-S)

- 8.5 National Council of Teachers of English. LEISURE READING
) FOR GRADES SEVEN, EIGHT, AND NINE. The Council,
1938. 20 cents.
Classified reading list for junior high school students. (New
edition in preparation)
- 8.5 STANDARD CATALOG FOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES,
) 4th ed. H. W. Wilson, 1942. Service basis. (New edition fall
1947)
- 8.5 Strang, Ruth, et. al. GATEWAYS TO READABLE BOOKS;
) an annotated, graded list of books in many fields for adolescents
who find reading difficult. H. W. Wilson, 1944. \$1.25.
- 50 Martin, L. K. MAGAZINES FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES, rev.
) and enl. ed. H. W. Wilson 1946. \$1.90.
The purchasing and use of magazines in elementary and sec-
ondary school libraries.
- 50 Walter, F. K. PERIODICALS FOR THE SMALL LIBRARY,
) 7th ed. American Library Association, 1939. \$.75
Annotated list of 214 magazine titles, largely adult.
- 50 U. S. Office of Education. EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY, in
) four parts. Annual Superintendent of Documents. Parts 1 and
4-10 cents each; Part 2-15 cents; Part 3-20 cents.
Lists state, county, principal city school officers; higher in-
stitutions of learning; educational associations and directories.
- 1.33 Dent, E. C. AUDIO-VISUAL HANDBOOK. Society for Visual
) Education, 1942. \$1.75. Fourth edition contains information on
new materials and equipment, such as miniature slides, stereosco-
pic projection and microfilms, and their sources.
- 1.42 Forrester, Gertrude. OCCUPATIONS: a selected list of pam-
) phlets. H. W. Wilson 1946. \$2.25.
- 7 Woodring, M. N. et. al. ENRICHED TEACHING OF ENGLISH
) IN THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL. Teachers
College, Revision in preparation.
"Source book for English teachers, librarians, and directors of
extra-curricular activities . . ."
- 8.3 FICTION CATALOG, 1941 ed.; a subject, author, and title list of
) 5,050 works of fiction in the English language. H. W. Wilson,
1942. Service basis. (Standard Catalog series) New edition ex-
pected 1947.
Books suitable for high school readers are indicated.

- 808.82 Smith, M. M. GUIDE TO PLAY SELECTION. Appleton-
(S) Century, 1934. \$1.40.
"Analyses of full length and one act plays, both ancient and modern." Plays suitable for high school production.
- 820.7 Wheeling, K. E. & Hilson, J. A. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS:
(S) FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL READING.
H. W. Wilson, 1941. \$1.25.
"Indexed by authors' names giving biographies, motion pictures, film strips, records, etc."
- 912 U. S. Superintendent of Documents. MAPS (Price List 53). Gov-
(E-S) ernment Printing Office. Free.
- 920 Logasa, Hannah. BIOGRAPHY IN COLLECTIONS SUIT-
(S) ABLE FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, 3rd ed. H. W. Wilson, 1940. \$1.50.
"Analytical index to books of collective biography accompanied by a subject index."
Indexes Which Students May Be Taught to Use
- 028.5 Wurzburg, D. A. AN INDEX OF CHILDREN'S BOOKS:
(E) EAST, WEST, NORTH AND SOUTH IN CHILDREN'S BOOKS. Faxon, 1939. \$2.50.
An annotated regional bibliography.
- 371.33 EDUCATIONAL FILM GUIDE. H. W. Wilson. \$3.00.
(E-S) A comprehensive list of 16mm. films. Nine monthly issues, frequently cumulated, and a bound cumulated volume in June.
- 371.42 Price, W. and Ticen, Z. E., comps. INDEX TO VOCATIONS;
(S) a subject index to 1950 careers, 2nd ed. H. W. Wilson, 1938. \$1.25.
Analyzes 123 books and 230 monographs.
- 394 Wurzburg, D. A. CHILDREN'S SHORT STORY INDEX
(E) FOR SPECIAL HOLIDAYS. Faxon, 1928. \$1.50.
- 398 Eastman, M. H. comp. INDEX TO FAIRY TALES, MYTHS,
(E) AND LEGENDS, Supplement. Faxon, 1937. \$6.00.
- 808.3 Lingenfelter, M. R., comp. VOCATIONS IN FICTION: AN
ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY. 2nd ed. American Library Association, 1938. \$1.25.
- 808.3 Van Nostrand, Jeanne. SUBJECT INDEX TO HIGH SCHOOL
(S) FICTION. American Library Association, 1938. \$.75.
About 500 books of fiction have been listed.
- 808.5 Ireland, N. O. and D. E. INDEX TO MONOLOGS AND DIA-
(E-S) LOGS. Faxon, 1939. \$2.50.

- 3.8 Bruncken, Herbert. **SUBJECT INDEX TO POETRY**: a guide for adult readers. American Library Association, 1940. \$3.25.
- 3.8 Granger, Edith. **GRANGER'S INDEX TO POETRY AND RECITATIONS**, 3rd ed. . . . McClurg, 1940. \$16.00.
Includes author, title, and first line indexes to the poems and an index of special days, choral readings, and seasons.
- 3.8 MacPherson, Maud R. **CHILDREN'S POETRY INDEX**. Faxon, 1938. \$5.00.
- 3.8 Rue, Eloise, comp. **SUBJECT INDEX TO READERS**. American Library Association, 1938. \$1.80.
- 3.8 Rue, Eloise, comp. **SUBJECT INDEX TO BOOKS FOR PRIMARY GRADES**. American Library Association, 1943. \$2.50.
FIRST SUPPLEMENT, 1946. \$1.25.
- 3.8 Rue, Eloise, comp. **SUBJECT INDEX TO BOOKS FOR INTERMEDIATE GRADES**. American Library Association, 1940. \$4.00.
FIRST SUPPLEMENT, 1943. \$2.50. Both for \$5.00.
- 3.81 Brewton, J. E. and Brewton, L. W., comps. **INDEX TO CHILDREN'S POETRY**: a title, subject, author, and first line index to poetry in collections for children and youth. H. W. Wilson, 1942, Service basis.
- 3.82 Logasa, Hannah and VerNooy, W., comps. **INDEX TO ONE-ACT PLAYS**: a second supplement, 1932-1940. Faxon, 1941. \$6.00. (Useful Reference series No. 68)
- 3.82 Ottemiller, J. H. **INDEX TO PLAYS IN COLLECTIONS**. H. W. Wilson, 1943. \$2.50.
An author and title index to plays appearing in collections published between 1900 and 1942.
- 3.85 Sutton, R. B., comp. **SPEECH INDEX**; an index to 64 collections of world famous orations and speeches for various occasions. H. W. Wilson, 1935. \$3.00.
- American Library Association, **SUBJECT INDEX TO CHILDREN'S PLAYS**, edited by E. D. Briggs, et. al. American Library Association, 1940. \$3.50.

Reference Collection

BRITANNICA JUNIOR. Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc. 1946.
12 vol.—\$63.90-79.90

Good supplementary encyclopedia for lower elementary grades.

COLUMBIA ENCYCLOPEDIA. Columbia University Press, 1946. \$19.50.

- Comprehensive, quick reference, one volume encyclopedia.
- 030 COMPTON'S PICTURED ENCYCLOPEDIA. Compton, latest
(E-S) ed. 15 vol.—\$79.50-84.50.
One of the two standard encyclopedias for children and young people. Revised at each printing.
- 030 ENCYCLOPEDIA AMERICANA. Americana Corporation
(S) latest ed. 30 vol.—\$164.50.
One of the recommended adult encyclopedias.
- 030 AMERICANA ANNUAL; an encyclopedia of current events
(S) Americana Corporation. \$10.00.
Yearbook keeping the AMERICANA ENCYCLOPEDIA up to date.
- 030 ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANNICA, 14th ed. Encyclopedia
(S) Britannica, latest ed. \$220.00 (20% discount to schools)
Recommended adult encyclopedia.
- 030 BRITANNICA BOOK OF THE YEAR. Encyclopedia Britan
(S) nica. \$10.00.
Annual supplement to encyclopedia Britannica. Includes cumulative index.
- 030 Kane, Joseph N. FAMOUS FIRST FACTS. H. W. Wilson
(E-S) 1933. o. p. MORE FAMOUS FACTS. H. W. Wilson, 1933.
\$2.25. Revised edition (both volumes in one) is in press.
- 030 LINCOLN LIBRARY OF ESSENTIAL INFORMATION, re
(E-S) vised. Frontier press, 1944. \$17.50; 2 vol.—\$21.50.
An excellent reference book intermediate between an encyclopedia and a handbook of facts.
- 030 THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA. Quarrie Corporation
(E-S) latest ed. 19 vol. \$89.00-\$99.00.
One of the two standard encyclopedias for children and young people. Revised at each printing.
- 050 CUMULATED INDEX TO THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC
(E-S) MAGAZINE. National Geographic Society, 1940. \$1.50.
- 050 READERS' GUIDE TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE. H. W.
(S) Wilson, Service basis. Or ABRIDGED READERS' GUIDE
TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE, H. W. Wilson, Service basis.
- 220.5 Bible. OXFORD BIBLE. (King James Version) Oxford. \$2.7.
(E-S) (Variation in prices according to size of type and style of binding.)
- 291 Bulfinch, Thomas. BULFINCH'S MYTHOLOGY, rev. ed.
(E-S) Modern Library, 1934. \$1.45.
Greek and Roman myths together with tales of chivalry.

- 92 Sabin, F. E. CLASSICAL MYTHS THAT LIVE TODAY;
E-S) rev. and enl. ed. Silver, 1940. \$1.96.
- 93 ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES. Macmillan,
) 1937. 15 vol. in 8. \$45.00. (A reprint of the original edition).
- 94 BUILDING AMERICA. Americana Corporation, 1936-date.
) 10 vol. each \$3.95. Annual subscription \$2.25. Single numbers
30 cents each.
Unit studies of social problems.
- 9 NORTH CAROLINA MANUAL. North Carolina Secretary of
E-S) State, biennial. Gratis from the secretary.
Each state issues a manual.
- 9 NORTH CAROLINA YEARBOOK. Raleigh, N. C. News &
E-S) Observer, \$1.00. Each state issues a yearbook.
- 9 STATEMAN'S YEARBOOK. Macmillan, \$6.00.
E-S) Concise and reliable manual of descriptive and statistical in-
formation about the governments of the world.
- 7.3 AMERICAN YEARBOOK. Nelson, \$7.50.
) Excellent annual on current developments in the United
States in the broadest sense, with signed articles by specialists.
- 7.3 United States. Department of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.
E-S) STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES.
Superintendent of Documents, \$1.50.
Published annually. Statistics of agriculture, population,
manufacture, mining, commerce, finance, climate, etc.
- 7.3 THE WORLD ALMANAC. World-Telegram. \$1.25; pa. 85.
E-S) Annual. Handy compilation of statistics and general information
- 7 POLITICAL HANDBOOK OF THE WORLD, PARLIA-
) MENTS, PARTIES, AND PRESS. Harper, for Council on
Foreign Relations, Inc. Annual, \$2.50.
- 8 United States. Congress. OFFICIAL CONGRESSIONAL
) DIRECTORY. Government Printing Office. \$1.25.
New edition for each session of Congress. Can usually be ob-
tained free from your congressman.
- 8.1 ROBERT, H. M. RULES OF ORDER REVISED FOR DE-
) LIBERATIVE ASSEMBLIES; rev. ed. Scott, \$1.50.
Handbook on parliamentary procedure.
- 8.1 Wines, E. M. and Card, M. W. COME TO ORDER; rev. ed.
E-S) Odyssey, 1941. \$1.00. Parliamentary procedure simplified.
- 2 Magruder, F. A. NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS AND IN-
) TERNATIONAL RELATIONS; rev. ed. Allyn, \$1.80. (Re-
vised annually)

- 342.73 Magruder, F. A. AMERICAN GOVERNMENT. Allyn, \$1.80.
(S) (Revised annually)
- 353 Cunningham, A. S. EVERYTHING YOU WANT TO KNOW
(E-S) ABOUT THE PRESIDENTS; rev. ed. McClurg, \$1.50.
- 353.9 BOOK OF THE STATES. Council of State Governments. \$3.50.
(S) Biennial book providing information on a wide range of state activities.
- 369.4 Boy Scouts of America. HANDBOOK FOR BOYS; rev. ed. Boy
(E) Scouts of America, 1940. Pamphlet, 50 cents.
- 369.4 Girl Scouts, Inc. GIRL SCOUT HANDBOOK FOR THE IN-
(E) TERMEDIATE PROGRAM. new ed. Girl Scouts, Inc. 1940.
Pamphlet, 50 cents.
- 372.2 Sawyer, Ruth. WAY OF THE STORYTELLER. Viking, 1942.
(E) \$2.50. A review of story telling, its history, its rewards, what can be learned about it and what can't . . .
- 378 American Council on Education. AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES
(S) AND COLLEGES, edited by Clarence S. Marsh; 4th ed. The Council, 1940. \$4.00. Directory of U. S. colleges and universities giving varied and useful information about each.
- 383 Scott Publications, Inc. SCOTT'S STANDARD POSTAGE
(E-S) STAMP CATALOG. The Company. \$3.00. (Revised annually).
- 383 U. S. Post-Office Department. OFFICIAL POSTAL GUIDE.
(S) Superintendent of Documents, annual. Part I, domestic, \$1.25; Part II, foreign, \$.35. Monthly supplement, \$1.75.
- 390 Eichler, Lillian. CUSTOMS OF MANKIND; deluxe ed. Garden
(S) City Pub. Co. 197. \$1.89. o. p. 1946.
Traces back to their origins the customs which we observe today.
- 391 Evans, Mary. COSTUME THROUGHOUT THE AGES; 2nd
(E-S) ed. revised. Lippincott, 198. \$3.50.
Covers both historic costume in Europe and America and national costume in the various European countries and the Far East.
- 391 Haire, Frances H. AMERICAN COSTUME BOOK. Barnes,
(E-S) 1934. \$5.00. Gives description of American clothing from the aboriginal Indian to the gay nineties.
- 391 Haire, Frances H. FOLK COSTUME BOOK; rev. and enlarged
(E-S) ed. Barnes, 194. \$5.00.
Folk costume of European countries and four period costumes of U. S.

Leeming, Joseph. **COSTUME BOOK.** Stokes, 1938. \$2.50.
 Descriptions and illustrations of folk, fanciful and fairy, and historical costume of twenty-seven nations.

Adams, F. A. and McCarrick, E. **HIGH DAYS AND HOLIDAYS.**
 Dutton, 1927. \$2.00.
 Poems for various holidays.

Douglas, G. W. **AMERICAN BOOK OF DAYS.** H. W. Wilson,
 1937. \$3.75.
 Gives information about holidays, festivals, and notable anniversaries.

Hazeltine, M. E. **ANNIVERSARIES AND HOLIDAYS;** 2nd ed.
 American Library Association, 1945. \$6.00.
 A calendar of days and how to observe them.

McSpadden, J. W. **BOOK OF HOLIDAYS;** 3rd ed. Crowell,
 1940. \$2.00.
 Origin and customs together with the usual customs of celebration in this country of 20 holidays.

Olcott, Frances J., comp. **GOOD STORIES FOR GREAT BIRTHDAYS.** Houghton, 1922. \$3.00.
 Over 200 stories celebrating 23 great birthdays.

Olcott, Frances J. **GOOD STORIES FOR GREAT HOLIDAYS.**
 Houghton, 1914. \$3.00.
 Collection of 120 stories grouped according to 17 holidays.

Schauffler, R. H., ed. **DAYS WE CELEBRATE.** Dodd, 1940.
 4 vol.—each \$2.50.
 Includes selections of prose and poetry for many holidays.

Sechrist, E. H. **RED LETTER DAYS.** Macraw-Smith, 1940.
 \$2.00
 A book of holiday customs. Traces origin of our American holidays.

Spicer, Dorothy G. **BOOK OF FESTIVALS.** Woman's Press,
 1937. \$3.00.
 Explanations of holiday festival of foreign groups.

Post, Emily. **Etiquette: "The Blue Book of Social Usage."** Funk,
 1937, \$4.00

Bender, James F., comp. **NBC HANDBOOK OF PRONUNCIATION.** Crowell, 1943. \$2.75.
 Over 12,000 entries of words which are most apt to present problems.

Kenyon, J. S. & Knott, T. A. **A PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH.** Merriam, 1944. \$3.00.

- 421 Shankle, G. E. CURRENT ABBREVIATIONS. H. W. Wilson
(S) 1944. \$3.00.
- 421 Stephenson, H. J., comp. ABBREYS (a dictionary of abbrevia-
(S) tions). Macmillan, 1943. \$1.75.
- 423 Oxford Dictionary. Murray, Sir James A. H. CONCISE OX-
(S) FORD DICTIONARY; 3rd ed. Oxford, 1934. \$4.50 with
thumb index.
Contains historical material not found in others, including
English of Chaucer and of Shakespeare.
- 423 Standard Dictionary. FUNK AND WAGNALL'S NEW STAND-
(E-S) ARD DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE; 1942
rev. ed. Funk, 1943. \$22.00.
Serviceable one volume work with special emphasis upon cur-
rent information, *i. e.*, present day meaning, pronunciation,
spelling, etc.
- 423 Thorndike, E. L. THORNDIKE CENTURY JUNIOR DICTIO-
(E) NARY; rev. ed. Scott, 1942. \$1.60.
- 423 Thorndike, E. L. THORNDIKE CENTURY SENIOR DICTIO-
(S) NARY. School ed.-Scott, 1941. \$2.96.
- 423 Watters, G. & Courtis, S. A. PICTURE DICTIONARY FOR
(E) CHILDREN; 2nd ed. Grosset, 1939. \$1.50. (Buckram, 2.00
Boards, 1.00).
A first guide to the meanings, spellings, and use of words . . .
- 423 Webster, N. COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY; 5th ed. Merriam
(E-S) 1936. \$4.00.
- 423 Webster, N. NEW INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY OF
(E-S) THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE; 2nd ed. unabridged. Mer-
riam, 1934. \$20.00.
The most used, and for general purposes the most useful, of the
one volume dictionaries.
- 424 Mawson, C. O. S. ROGET'S THESAURUS OF THE ENGLISH
(S) LANGUAGE IN DICTIONARY FORM: rev. ed. Garden
City Pub. Co. 1936. \$1.98.
- 424 Roget, P. M. THESAURUS OF ENGLISH WORDS AND
(S) PHRASES. Crowell, 1946. \$4.50.
Words grouped by related meaning. Index.
- 424 Webster, Noah. DICTIONARY OF SYNONYMS. Merriam
(S) 1942. \$3.50; with thumb index, \$4.00.
- 424 Fernald, J. C. ENGLISH SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS; re-
(S) vis. and enl. ed. Harper, 1938. \$3.00.

Weseen, M. H. DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN SLANG. Crowell, 1934. \$2.50.

Up to date collection of current American slang. Classified grouping.

.3 Fowler, H. W. DICTIONARY OF MODERN ENGLISH USAGE. Oxford University Press. 1937. \$3.50.

.3 Krapp, G. P. COMPREHENSIVE GUIDE TO GOOD ENGLISH. Rand, 1927. \$3.00.

.3 Opdyke, J. B. SAY WHAT YOU MEAN: everyman's guide to diction and grammar. Funk, 1944. \$3.75.

Edgren, August H. and Burnett, P. B. FRENCH AND ENGLISH DICTIONARY. Holt, 1929. \$3.00.

Cuyas, Arturo. APPLETON'S NEW ENGLISH-SPANISH AND SPANISH-ENGLISH DICTIONARY rev. and enlarged by Antonio Llano; 3rd ed. with supplements. Appleton, 1940. 2 vol. in 1, \$5.50.

S) Comstock, A. B. HANDBOOK OF NATURE STUDY; 24th ed. Comstock Pub. Co. 1939. \$4.50.

Well-illustrated handbook covering a wide field of elementary instruction.

S) Green, C. H. TREES OF THE SOUTH. University of North Carolina Press, 1939. \$2.50.

Hogner, D. C. ANIMAL BOOK; American mammals north of Mexico. Oxford University Press, 1942. \$3.50.

.9 S) Hornaday, W. T. AMERICAN NATURAL HISTORY. Scribner, 1935. \$5.00.

Useful reference book on mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, and fishes of North America. 16th revised edition.

.7 S) Comstock, J. H. MANUAL FOR THE STUDY OF INSECTS; 22nd ed. rev. Comstock Pub. Co. 1938. \$4.00.

General work on entomology—clear language, well illustrated.

.7 Lutz, Frank E. FIELD BOOK OF INSECTS OF THE U. S. AND CANADA, 3rd ed. Putnam, 1935. \$3.50.

.1 S) Ditmars, R. L. REPTILES OF NORTH AMERICA; rev. ed. Doubleday, 1936. \$6.75. Valuable reference book lavishly illustrated.

.2 S) BIRDS OF AMERICA, edited by T. G. Pearson and others. Garden City Pub. Co. 1936. 3 vol. in 1, \$3.95. o.p. 1946.

- 603 Crispin, F. S. **DICTIONARY OF TECHNICAL TERMS**; rev.
(S) ed. Bruce, 1942. \$2.50.
Contains definitions of commonly used expressions in aeronautics, architecture, woodworking, and building trades.
- 603 Hiscox, Gardner D., ed. **HENLEY'S TWENTIETH CENTURY
(S) BOOK OF FORMULAS, PROCESSES, AND TRADE
SECRETS**: rev. ed. Henley, 1940. \$4.00.
- 614.8 Red Cross. American National Red Cross. **AMERICAN RED
(E-S) CROSS FIRST AID TEXTBOOK**; rev. ed. Blakiston, 1949.
\$1.00.
- 651.3 Hutchinson, L. I. **STANDARD HANDBOOK FOR SECRE
(S) TORIES**; 3rd ed. McGraw, 1941. \$2.95.
- 709 Hillyer, V. M. and Huey, E. G. **CHILD'S HISTORY OF ART
(E) Appleton, 1933. \$3.50.**
- 709 Reinach, Salomon. **APOLLO**; an illustrated manual of the history
(E-S) of art throughout the ages . . . new ed. rev. Scribner, 1935. \$2.00.
- 750 Latimer, L. P. **ILLUSTRATORS, A FINDING LIST**; rev. ed.
(E) Faxon, 1929. \$1.00.
List of illustrators and the books for young people illustrated by each. Limited to books in English and in print 1929.
- 780.3 Pratt, W. S. ed. **NEW ENCYCLOPEDIA OF MUSIC AND
(E-S) MUSICIANS**; new and rev. ed. Macmillan, 1929. \$3.50.
- 780.92 Ewen, David. **COMPOSERS OF TODAY**; 2nd ed. H. W.
(E-S) Wilson, 1936. \$3.75. Comprehensive biographical and critical
guide to modern composers of all nations.
- 780.92 Ewen, David. **LIVING MUSICIANS**. H. W. Wilson, 1940.
(E-S) \$4.50. Biographies of 500 living musicians, including singers,
pianists, players of other instruments, and conductors.
- 782 VICTOR BOOK OF THE OPERA; 10th ed. rev. RCA 1939;
(S) \$2.00.
Stories of the operas with illustrations and descriptions of
Victor Opera Records.
- 790 Bancroft, J. H. **GAMES**; rev. and enl. ed. Macmillan, 1937. \$4.00.
(E-S) School ed. \$3.00.
- 793 Depew, Arthur M. **COKESBURY GAME BOOK**. Cokesbury
(E-S) Press, c1939. \$1.75.
Includes section on games for special occasions.
- 803 Brewer, E. C. **READER'S HANDBOOK** of famous names in fic-
(E-S) tion, allusions, references, proverbs, plots, stories, and poems.
Lippincott, 1899. \$3.50.

Gerwig, Henrietta, ed. CROWELL'S HANDBOOK FOR READERS AND WRITERS.

Crowell. New edition in preparation (1946). A dictionary of famous characters and plots in literature, terms, allusions, etc.

Walsh, W. S. HANDY BOOK OF LITERARY CURIOSITIES. Lippincott, 1893. \$4.00.

Literary allusions, characters in books, and out of the way information about books and authors.

3 Logasa, Hannah, comp. HISTORICAL FICTION AND OTHER READING REFERENCES FOR HISTORY CLASSES IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS; 3rd ed. McKinley, 1941. \$1.80.

5 Summers, H. B. and Whan, F. L. HOW TO DEBATE; a textbook for beginners. H. W. Wilson, 1940. \$1.25.

6 Foley, M. C. and Gentles, R. G. POST HASTE. Harper, 1939. \$1.50. A manual for modern letter writers.

8 Johnson, Edna and Scott, C. E. ANTHOLOGY OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE. Houghton, 1940. \$5.00.

8 Logan, Jessie E., ed. GOODLY COMPANY; a book of quotations and proverbs for character development. Beckley-Cardy, 1930. \$1.00.

Arranged alphabetically according to ethical subject.

8Q Bartlett, John, comp., FAMILIAR QUOTATIONS, 11th ed. rev. and enlarged. Little, 1937. \$5.00. o.p. 1946.

A comprehensive well selected collection arranged by authors, chronologically.

8Q Hoyt, J. K. NEW CYCLOPEDIA OF PRACTICAL QUOTATIONS; compiled by K. L. Roberts, Funk, 1940. \$7.50.

A very comprehensive collection, and the most useful of subject lists.

8Q Stevenson, B. E., ed. HOME BOOK OF QUOTATIONS; classical and modern, 3rd. ed. Dodd, 1937. \$12.50; 2 vol. \$15.00. Comprehensive and well chosen collection . . . arranged alphabetically by subject.

8Q Van Buren, Maud. QUOTATIONS FOR SPECIAL OCCASIONS. H. W. Wilson, 1938. \$2.50.

Quotations in prose and poetry grouped under subjects.

87 Fanning, C. E. and Wilson, H. W., comps. TOASTER'S HANDBOOK; 3rd ed. rev. H. W. Wilson, 1938. \$1.50.

Jokes, stories, and quotations arranged under subject.

- 809 Drinkwater, John, ed. **OUTLINE OF LITERATURE.** Putnam
(S) 1931. Popular ed. 3 vol. in 1, \$5.00. (Out of print, 1942.)
- 810.3 Hart, J. D. **OXFORD COMPANION TO LITERATURE**
(S) Oxford University Press, 1941. \$6.00.
In alphabetical arrangement, the work includes short biographies and bibliographies of American authors, summaries and descriptions of important American works.
- 810.9 **CAMBRIDGE HISTORY OF AMERICAN LITERATURE**
(S) edited by W. P. Trent, et.al. 3 vol. ed. 1933. Macmillan, \$5.00.
History and standard reference book on colonial, early national, and later national literature.
- 810.9 Millett, F. B. **CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN AUTHORS;**
(S) critical survey and 219 bio-bibliographies. Harcourt, 1941.
\$3.75.
- 811.08 Untermeyer, Louis, ed. **MODERN AMERICAN POETRY**
(S) 6th rev. ed. Harcourt, 1942. \$3.75; test ed. \$2.75.
- 820.3 Harvey, Sir Paul, ed., **OXFORD COMPANION TO ENGLISH LITERATURE;**
(S) 2nd ed. Oxford University Press, 1937. \$6.00.
- 820.9 Garnett, R. and Gosse, Edmund. **ENGLISH LITERATURE**
(S) new ed. Macmillan, 1935. 4 vol. in 2, \$8.50.
Gives literary history, biographical and critical sketches of authors . . . criticism . . . many illustrations.
- 820.9 Millett, F. B. **CONTEMPORARY BRITISH LITERATURE;**
(S) critical survey and 232 author bibliographies; 3rd rev. and enlarged ed. Harcourt, 1935. \$2.50.
- 820.9 Sampson, George. **CONCISE CAMBRIDGE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.** Macmillan, 1941. \$4.50.
- 821.08 Aldington, Richard, ed. **THE VIKING BOOK OF POETRY OF THE ENGLISH SPEAKING WORLD.** Viking, 1941.
(S) \$3.50.
- 21.08 Auslander, Joseph & Hill, F. E., comps., **THE WINGED HORSE ANTHOLOGY.** Doubleday, 1929. \$3.50.
(S)
- 21.08 **OXFORD BOOK OF ENGLISH VERSE, 1250-1918;** new ed.
(S) rev. and enl. Oxford University Press, 1939. \$3.50.
- 821.08 Palgrave, F. T., comp. **GOLDEN TREASURY.** Macmillan
(E-S) 1944. \$1.98.
- 821.08 Stevenson, B. E., comp. **HOME BOOK OF MODERN VERSE.**
(E-S) Holt, 1937. \$8.50.
- 821.08 Stevenson, B. E., comp. **HOME BOOK OF VERSE;** 7th ed.
(E-S) 2 vol. Holt, 1945. \$17.50.

- Stevenson, B. E., comp. HOME BOOK OF VERSE FOR YOUNG FOLKS. Holt, 1929. \$3.00.
- Untermeyer, Louis, ed. MODERN BRITISH POETRY, 5th ed. rev. Harcourt, 1942. \$3.50; text ed. \$2.50.
- Neilson, W. A. and Thorndike, A. H. FACTS ABOUT SHAKESPEARE; rev. ed. Macmillan, 1931. \$1.90.
Shifted information about Shakespeare, his period, writings, etc.
- Shakespeare, William. COMPLETE PLAYS AND POEMS . . . Houghton, 1942. \$5.00. (New Cambridge Edition)
- Hartmen, Gertrude. THE WORLD WE LIVE IN AND HOW IT CAME TO BE. Macmillan, 1931. \$2.50.
A pictured outline of man's progress from the earliest days to the present.
- Langer, W. L. ed., ENCYCLOPEDIA OF WORLD HISTORY; ancient, medieval, and modern. Houghton, 1940. \$6.00; school ed. \$5.00.
A revised and modernized version of Ploetz's Epitome.
- Webster, Hutton, ed. HISTORICAL SOURCE BOOK. Heath, 1920. \$1.60.
Thirty-three of the great documents of European and American history from 1215 to 1919.
- Lawrence, C. H. ed. NEW WORLD HORIZONS; geography for the air age. Duell, 1942. \$2.75; Silver, 1942, \$2.00.
A new kind of geography for the air age; maps are clear, simple, and valuable.
- Adams, J. T. ed., ATLAS OF AMERICAN HISTORY. Scribner, 1943. \$10.00.
Concise, authoritative maps of every important event of geographical importance in American history.
- Lord, C. L. and Lord, E. H. HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE UNITED STATES. Holt, 1944. \$3.00.
Contains over 300 maps covering the political, social, and economic development of the United States from colonial times to the present. Section V has product maps of the world.
- Muir, Ramsay and Philip, George. PUTNAM'S HISTORICAL ATLAS, medieval and modern; 6th ed. Putnam, 1927. \$5.00.
A chronological arrangement of maps giving historical, physical, industrial, and language developments of the world. Has full index.

- 912 ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANNICA WORLD ATLAS. Har
(E-S) mond, 1942. \$9.95.
Contains physical and political maps, geographical compa-
sons, a glossary of geographical terms, political divisions and
capitals, a gazetteer index. (Same maps with 260 additional
pages of textual and illustrative geographic summaries avail-
able under same title from Encyclopedia Britannica Corp. f
\$20.00).
- 912 Goode, J. P. GOODE'S SCHOOL ATLAS; physical, political
(E-S) and economic; rev. ed. Rand, latest ed. \$4.40.
Includes in addition to political and physical maps, mar-
maps showing economic conditions of the world.
- 912 Rand, McNally and Company. WORLD ATLAS; International
(S) edition. Rand, McNally, \$7.50.
Premier edition, \$5.00.
- 913.37 Davis, W. S. A DAY IN OLD ROME. Allyn. \$1.80. Daily life
(E-S) customs, religion, government, etc. of Rome in 134 A. D.
- 913.37 Johnston, H. W. PRIVATE LIFE OF THE ROMANS. Sec
(E-S) \$2.24. Social life and customs, education, religion of Rome.
- 913.38 Davis, W. S. A DAY IN OLD ATHENS. Allyn, 1914. \$1.6.
(E-S) Describes the experiences of a visitor in Athens in 360 B. C.
- 914.2 Gunliffe, J. W. ENGLAND IN PICTURE, SONG AND STORY
(S) Appleton, 1936. \$5.00.
A guidebook to scenic, literary, and historic England.
- 918 SOUTH AMERICAN YEARBOOK. H. W. Wilson. \$1.0.
(E-S) Annual. A yearbook and guide to the countries and resources
Latin America.
- 920 CURRENT BIOGRAPHY. H. W. Wilson. Monthly issues \$3.9
(E-S) yearly; Bound volumes containing the twelve yearly numbers
with revision of the facts to date of publication are issued
schools at \$4.00 a year extra. 1940 volume out of print.
- 920 Fitzhugh, H. L. and Fitzhugh, P. K. CONCISE BIOGRAPHICAL
(E-S) CAL DICTIONARY. Grosset, 1935. \$1.00.
Emphasis on modern characters. Pronunciation given.
- 920 Kaltenbach, Gustave E. DICTIONARY OF PRONUNCIATION
(S) TION OF ARTISTS' NAMES. Chic. Art Institute, 1934.
Pamphlet, \$.75.
Gives their schools and dates.

Kunitz, S. J. and Haycraft, Howard, eds. **AMERICAN AUTHORS, 1600-1900.** H. W. Wilson, 1938. \$5.00.

Contains, in all, biographies of almost 1300 authors . . . No living authors are included.

Kunitz, S. J. and Haycraft, Howard, eds. **BRITISH AUTHORS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.** H. W. Wilson, 1936. \$4.50.

Short lively presentation of biographical sketches and brief critical judgment of their works.

Kunitz, S. J. and Haycraft, Howard, eds. **JUNIOR BOOK OF AUTHORS.** H. W. Wilson, 1934. \$3.25.

An introduction to the lives of writers and illustrators for younger readers.

Kunitz, S. J. and Haycraft, Howard, eds. **TWENTIETH CENTURY AUTHORS.** H. W. Wilson, 1942. \$8.50.

Authentic biographical information on the writers of this century of all nations whose books are familiar to readers of English. Supersedes **LIVING AUTHORS** and **AUTHORS TODAY AND YESTERDAY.**

Morgan, James. **OUR PRESIDENTS;** new rev. ed. Macmillan, 1935. \$2.50.

Brief biographies of our chief magistrates.

Preston, Wheeler. **AMERICAN BIOGRAPHIES.** Harper, 1940. \$7.50.

Brief sketches of over 5,000 Americans. Living people excluded.

Webster, Noah. **WEBSTER'S BIOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY.** Merriam, 1943. \$6.50.

Biographical reference work not restricted in its selections of names by considerations of historical period, nationality, race, religion, or occupation.

WHO'S WHO. Macmillan. Issued annually. \$15.00.

Very brief accounts of living people, primarily English.

WHO WAS WHO IN AMERICA; a companion volume to **WHO'S WHO IN AMERICA.** vol. 1, 1897-1942. Marquis, 1942. \$10.00.

Biographies of the non-living with dates of deaths appended.

WHO'S WHO IN AMERICA. Marquis, Issued biennially. \$10.00.

Biographical dictionary of living Americans, giving very briefly main facts of life, writings, and present address.

- 929 (E-S) Shankle, G. E. STATE NAMES, FLAGS, SEALS, SONGS, BIRDS, FLOWERS, AND OTHER SYMBOLS; rev. ed. H. W. Wilson, 1941. \$2.80.
- 929.4 (E-S) Mawson, C. O. S. INTERNATIONAL BOOK OF NAMES. Crowell, 1942. \$2.50.
Includes pronunciation of proper names in literature, history, biography, geography, etc.
- 929.4 (E-S) Shankle, G. E. AMERICAN NICKNAMES; their origin and significance. H. W. Wilson, 1937. \$4.25.
Over 400 nicknames which have been applied to famous Americans, cities, states, organizations, etc. Arranged in dictionary form.
- 929.9 (E-S) Tappan, E. M. LITTLE BOOK OF THE FLAG; enl. ed. Houghton, 1937. \$.76.
- 929.9 (E-S) Wheeler-Holohan, Vincent. FLAGS OF THE WORLD, PAST AND PRESENT; their story and associations. Warne, 1939. \$3.50.
- 940.1 (E-S) Hartman, Gertrude. MEDIEVAL DAYS AND WAYS. Macmillan, 1937. \$2.50.
Description of medieval life with emphasis on English conditions.
- 970.1 (E-S) Salomon, J. H. BOOK OF INDIAN CRAFTS AND INDIAN LORE. Harper, 1928. \$3.50.
- 973 (E-S) Adams, J. T., ed. ALBUM OF AMERICAN HISTORY. Scribner. Vol. I-Colonial life, 1944. \$7.50. Vol. II-1783-1853, 1945. \$7.50.
Pictorial history of the United States.
- 973 (E) Hartman, Gertrude. THESE UNITED STATES AND HOW THEY CAME TO BE. Macmillan, 1935. \$2.50.
Elementary history with emphasis on discoveries and inventions with the resulting culture.
- 973 (E-S) PAGEANT OF AMERICA. Yale University Press. 15 vol. \$75.00 set; \$5.50 per volume.
Useful pictorial history of the United States.
- 973.03 (S) DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN HISTORY; J. T. Adams, editor-in-chief. Scribner. 1940. \$60.00. (6 volumes)
Recommended for large schools.
- 973.03 (E) Shankle, G. E. AMERICAN MOTTOES AND SLOGANS. H. W. Wilson, 1941. \$1.75.
Contains historical data on almost three hundred mottoes and slogans.

BASIC COURSES IN LIBRARY SCIENCE AND SELECTED
BIBLIOGRAPHY

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS

(6 Semester Hours)

The purpose of this course is to help librarians-in-training develop the understandings, attitudes, skills, and information necessary for leadership in a program of library service that will contribute to the realization of educational objectives. The function of the school library is to acquire, organize, use, and encourage the use of all types of materials of instruction, defined broadly to include: books, periodicals, pamphlets, maps, charts, globes, films, film-strips, recordings, and other teaching-learning tools.

To be most effective, the teaching methods used should demonstrate a broad concept of library service and an understanding of human growth and development. It is suggested that a variety of approaches to learning be employed, such as: laboratory experience, committee or group projects; panel and forum discussions; individual reports (oral and written); and observation-discussion or lecture-discussion techniques.

Students should be encouraged to think of the techniques of library organization as a means to an end—effective library service. The proportion of time devoted in this course to each suggested area should be determined by the background of the individual student and with regard for the place of each area in relation to a total program of good library administration.

Suggested Content

Background of educational understandings

A. Review of school objectives in a democratic society

Library service must be planned in terms of the best educational objectives and philosophy in order that the library be effective in the total school program. Such planning will necessitate a clear understanding of trends in educational procedures and emphases as well as a knowledge of students' readiness for this area of learning. Participation of members of colleges of education faculties will help build a common background of educational understandings.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Review of changing patterns in school philosophy and current trends in educational thinking.
2. Implication of such patterns and trends for school library service.
3. Use of statistical summaries in interpreting educational needs with emphasis on such publications as those of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, state and local planning boards, *etc.*

B. School and community

This broad over-view prepares students of library service for a more detailed study of the particular relationship of the school to the community and the place of the school library in the pattern of community service.

Areas for special emphasis

1. State and regional sociological and economic backgrounds which affect education
2. Study of materials that are important in understanding community, state, and regional problems
3. Methods for making and interpreting simple community surveys and their use in planning school library service
4. Study of community agencies that work toward the improvement of living in the community
5. Value of the contribution which can be made by local individuals and groups representing various kinds of human interest

C. Administrative organization of the educational system

A study of the administrative organization of the school on local, state, and national levels will indicate the framework within which the library must operate. It is equally important to know the patterns of library services that have developed on local, state, and national levels. School library programs should be so planned as to make use of all library resources and to contribute most to the total educational improvement of the community.

Areas for special emphasis

1. School administrative channels through which librarian must work
2. Administrative organization of parallel library services
3. Familiarity with and evaluation of patterns of library service: such as, classroom collections; centralized school libraries (high school and/or elementary); centralized library service within a school system; municipal, county, regional, and state library service; college and university libraries; state legislative libraries; *etc.*

4. Utilization of all these library resources

II. School library service: philosophy and practice

A. Role of the librarian

The school librarian should serve as a teacher in encouraging the wise use of materials, in helping plan curriculum improvement, and in contributing to a better understanding of human growth and development in addition to making available the necessary materials of instruction.

Areas for special emphasis:

1. Understanding of the basic principles of human growth and development as a means of satisfactory relationships and adjustments
2. Understanding of the best practices in curriculum building
3. Participation in classroom and school activities, faculty meetings, conferences with individuals and groups of students, teachers, and others
4. Means of increasing the effective use of materials

B. Services of the library

The services of the library and the means of effecting them should be planned coöperatively in relation to teacher and pupil needs.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Types of services; such as, reference, guidance, library instruction
2. Administrative procedures; such as, scheduling and attendance, reading room management, *etc.*

C. Library quarters and equipment

The functioning of the school library as a teaching and service agency is vitally affected by the provision of suitable and attractive quarters in the school plant.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Standards
2. Location of the library
3. Allocation and use of library space
4. Equipment of the library
5. Maintenance of the library

D. Public relations

Good public relations require that the librarian engage in school and community affairs and encourage individuals and groups in the school and community to participate in library activities. It is his responsibility to interpret the library program to these individuals and groups.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Coöperative planning of school library program
2. Personal contacts and group activities
3. Effective use of all types of publicity, such as, school and local papers, posters, exhibits, displays, programs, *etc.*
4. Inviting and pleasant library environment

E. Pupil participation

It is to the mutual advantage of pupils and the library program that a variety of opportunities be provided for pupil participation in planning and carrying on library activities.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Study of types of activities that contribute to the pupil learning process; such as, participation in book selection, library government, publicity programs, etc.
2. Organization of library groups; such as, staff assistants, library clubs, committees, etc.
3. Patterns of selection, training, and compensation of pupil assistants in the library.

F. Instruction in library usage

The school librarian should understand how to plan instruction in the use of books and libraries as an integral part of the total instructional program. Methods of teaching the use of specific materials and library tools will be studied when these materials and tools are presented to the student in library service. At this point in the course, the suggested scope, sequence, and patterns of library instruction are explored. The development of library skills and understandings can best be planned coöperatively by teachers and the librarian as problems arise in the classroom. Guidance in library usage must also be given to individuals as the need arises.

Areas for special emphasis

1. The necessity for the librarian to be informed regarding curricular needs
2. Principles of teaching-learning process applicable to effective library instruction
3. Scope of the program of library instruction: introduction to the school library; location of material (arrangement card catalog, *Readers' Guide*, other indexes); use of materials (the book, dictionaries, encyclopedias, materials in major subject areas); use of books and libraries for recreation; information about library resources (school, town, county, state, nation)
4. The integrated program as distinguished from the separate course in library instruction

G. Evaluation

The purpose of evaluation is to measure the effectiveness of a program in relation to its goals. It is a continuous process, planned coöperatively, with its main objective the recognition of strengths and weaknesses as a basis for planning future improvement. The ma

terials, plant, and physical equipment of the library are important, but the real effectiveness of the program is evaluated in terms of its contribution to the growth and development of individuals.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Principles of evaluation
2. Setting up criteria for effective self-evaluation
3. Study of formulated standards; such as, local, state, regional and national (standards should be emphasized again under each area to which they apply)

H. Professional responsibility

Effective school library service must be implemented by librarians with broad understanding, vision, and skill. They must seek opportunities for further development through both formal and informal study and participation in professional and community organizations and activities. It is the responsibility of librarians and library training agencies to present the variety of opportunities available in librarianship to young people. The school librarian is a strategic person for stimulating interest in library work. The extent to which the pupil will be influenced will depend upon the personality, qualifications, activities, and outside interests of the librarian.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Characteristics of a good librarian
2. Professional ethics
3. Types of library positions
4. Library training agencies, graduate and undergraduate
5. Certification and retirement plans, *etc.*
6. Presentation of opportunities in librarianship through guidance programs
7. Materials available for recruitment
8. Participation in professional organizations; such as, state, regional, and national education and library associations

II. Business Practices: Methods and Interpretation

A. Financing the school library program

Financing the school library program as part of the total school service is the responsibility of the school administration. It is the librarian's responsibility to present to the administration statements of needs and costs. School library budgets should be determined in relation to total school budgets. Active interest and understanding on the part of the public is essential to the successful financing of the program.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Budget making and presentation on basis of needs
 2. Policies relating to gifts, endowments, *etc.*
 3. State aid
- B. Ordering and accounting procedures in the purchase of library materials, supplies, and equipment
- Order procedures vary from school to school and state to state. The objective of this area is to explore principles of good practices and emphasize the necessity for following directions when specific order procedures are necessary.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Procedures commonly followed in making out orders for materials, supplies, and equipment
 2. Sources for placing orders; such as, jobbers, book stores, publishers, library supply houses, school supply houses, office equipment companies, *etc.*
 3. Discounts
 4. The checking and disposition of invoices, records, adjustments, and follow-up procedures
- C. Inventory

The inventory record is the librarian's method of accounting for public property represented by the library materials, equipment, and supplies under his supervision. An analysis of such inventories suggests administrative procedures and organizational policies. The examination of the inventory record is one basic step in the selection of materials.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Significance of inventory
 2. Method of taking inventory
 3. Inventory record
- D. Records and reports
- Records and reports are important only as they help interpret the effectiveness of school library service in relation to individual school, state, and regional goals.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Purpose of collecting statistics
2. Kinds of statistics; such as, comprehensive, samplings, *etc.*
3. Form of reports; such as, narrative, statistical, graphic, *etc.*
4. Types of reports; such as monthly, annual, reports to principals, and superintendents, state and regional accrediting agencies, *etc.*
5. Types of records; such as, individual reading records, circulating, *etc.*

Library Procedures and Techniques

Library procedures and techniques are presented as a means to an end, namely, to make all library materials readily available for wide and efficient use.

A. Organization of materials

Even in the smallest library the organization of books and other library materials is necessary in order to assure effective use.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Introduction to Dewey decimal classification system
2. Use of basic book and material selection aids in classification and cataloging; *e. g.*, Standard Catalog series, Educational Film Guide, etc.
3. Classification of books and other library materials, using aids mentioned above
4. Ordering and using simple printed catalog cards; *e. g.*, Wilson cards
5. Accessioning methods and shelflisting
6. Simple cataloging of materials for which printed cards are not available, using basic selection aids for card form and subject headings
7. Rules for filing
8. Organization and use of vertical file
9. Methods of teaching use of the catalog as an index to the school library

B. Mechanical preparation of books and other library materials

The mechanical preparation of materials for use is a part of the library's machinery for the accounting of materials.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Marks of ownership
2. Classification symbols
3. Pockets, date due slips, *etc.*

C. Lending system

The lending system should be planned to meet the needs of the groups to be served.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Special types of loans to include individuals and groups within and without the school
2. Inter-library loans
3. Overdues and fines
4. Methods of teaching how books may be borrowed

D. Supplies and materials for library procedures

Areas for special emphasis

1. Sources
2. Suggested lists of supplies

E. Maintenance of library materials

It is important to keep the library's materials up-to-date and in good condition to assure the best use.

Areas for special emphasis

1. Weeding
2. Cleaning
3. Mending
4. Binding
5. Methods of teaching the care of books

SCHOOL LIBRARY PRACTICE

(3 Semester Hours)

General Statement

1. Observation and practice in elementary and secondary school libraries is essential to the student who will go directly from library training to take charge of a school library.
2. It is desirable that library practice be coordinated with student teaching in other fields and that the library practice program in its administration be comparable to the program of student teaching.
3. Credit for library practice may be granted in library service or education depending upon the policy of the individual institution.

Content

1. Library observation and practice should be organized and planned to meet the needs of the individual student. The student who has had teaching or library experience needs a different type of program from that which would be helpful to a student who has had teaching or library experience or both. Work on some problem pertinent to a particular library situation should be arranged for a student whose previous work experience justifies such an arrangement.
2. A well-rounded program should be planned to provide the student with experience in many aspects of library service. Such a program should include practice in
 - a. Use of materials with teachers and pupils: reading guidance, reference service, teaching the use of books and libraries, and work with classroom groups in classrooms as well as in the library
 - b. Selection, acquisition, and organization of library materials

- c. Administrative duties: direction of the work of pupil assistants, supervision of the reading room, circulation routines, library publicity, care of library materials, preparation and use of library records and reports, evaluation of library services
- d. Professional and community relationships: with other members, with school patrons, and with other members of the library and teaching professions

In short, the school librarian-in-training should participate, in so far as possible, in all the professional activities of the supervising librarian.

- 3. Conferences to provide direction, analysis, and synthesis are a necessary part of the library practice program. Such conferences should include supervising teacher of library service and supervising librarian; supervising teacher of library service and students; supervising librarian and students; teacher of library service, librarian, and students.
- 4. It is expected that observational visits to various types of libraries and in various teaching situations will be arranged throughout the program of training for school library service.

Time Allotment

- 1. Library practice should come near the end of the student's training program and should extend over at least one semester, with approximately six hours per week of assigned practice. It is desirable that any one period of work be at least two hours in length. This recommendation is based upon the generally accepted principle of two hours of laboratory work for one hour of credit.
- 2. In place of, or in addition to this program of library practice, supervised internships of at least six weeks duration may be desirable.
- 3. When such an internship is credited as an elective, it should be scheduled in a school other than that in which the first library practice was done.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF LIBRARY MATERIALS SUGGESTED FOR INSTITUTIONS TRAINING SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

This bibliography is not intended as a comprehensive list of professional literature which should be available in an institution offering courses in library science for school librarians. Nor is it an inclusive list of references in the school library field. It is, however, a selected list of professional materials recommended as a part of the library collection in the field of librarianship which should be available in institutions training school librarians and teacher-librarians.

Books

- Akers, S. G. SIMPLE LIBRARY CATALOGING. 3rd ed. 1944. American Library Association. \$2.25.
- American Library Association Board on Library Service to Children and Young People. RIGHT BOOK FOR THE RIGHT CHILD. 3rd ed. 1942. John Day, Inc. \$3.00.
- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION GLOSSARY OF LIBRARY TERMS. 1943. American Library Association. \$3.50.
- Becker, M. L. ADVENTURES IN READING. 1946. Lippincott. \$2.00.
- Becker, M. L. READING MENUS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE. 1935. Scholastic Corporation. \$1.00.
- Bennett, Wilma. STUDENT LIBRARY ASSISTANT. 1933. (o. p. New edition in preparation) H. W. Wilson. \$2.40.
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